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CONSTRUCTIVE CRITICS, ḤADĪTH LITERATURE, AND THE ARTICULATION OF SUNNĪ ISLAM

The Legacy of the Generation of Ibn Sa'd, Ibn Ma'īn, and Ibn Ḥanbal

BY

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PREFACE

This book is a slightly revised version of my doctoral dissertation "The Arts of Hadīth Compilation and Criticism: A study of the emergence of Sunnī Islam in the third/ninth century" that I wrote at the University of Chicago under the guidance of Professor Wadad al-Qadi. Professor Qadi first introduced me to Ibn Sa'd, whose Kītāb al-tabaqāt al-kabīr is largely responsible for my understanding of the development of early Islam, many years ago and she has remained most supportive of my research ever since. I am particularly grateful for her decision to include Constructive Critics in the Islamic History and Civilization series at Brill. I also received useful comments from Professors Fred Donner and Robert Dankoff of the University of Chicago during the dissertation phase of this book. Finally, I wish to thank the anonymous reviewer whose erudite seven-page report on this manuscript saved me from several potentially embarrassing overgeneralizations and provided references to additional secondary literature that I had neglected to cite.

Much of the research and writing of this book was made possible by a generous dissertation fellowship from the Mrs. Giles Whiting Foundation during the 2001–2002 academic year. The conversion of this dissertation into a book manuscript was completed during a fruitful year at Mount Holyoke College (2002–2003), and I am grateful for the opportunity extended to me to serve as a Visiting Assistant Professor in Islam by the Department of Religion.

My parents, Hank and Ellen Lucas, have been champions of education my whole life and, in many ways, have inspired me to follow in their footsteps as a professor and teacher. I am particularly thankful for their love, support, and an introductory lesson in database construction. My brother Jon has provided much appreciated encouragement. This book is dedicated to my wife Maha Nassar, who, more than anyone else, has encouraged me to think seriously about Sunnī Islam and to undertake research that is intended to be of value to academics and inquisitive Muslims alike.

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ABBREVIATIONS

BSOAS	Bulletin of the School of Oriental and African Studies, London, 1917
EI2	Encyclopaedia of Islam, New Edition, Leiden, 1960–2002.
al-Fihrist	Ibn al-Nadīm, Kītāb al-fihrist li-l-Nadīm, ed. Reza Tajaddod,
	Tehran, no date.
GAS	Fuat Sezgin, Geschichte des arabischen Schrifttums, I, 1967.
IJMES	International Journal of Middle East Studies, New York, 1970
al-Iṣāba	Ibn Ḥajar, al-Iṣāba fī tamyīz al-ṣaḥāba, Beirut, 1978.
JAOS	Journal of the American Oriental Society, New Haven, 1842
JSAI	Jerusalem Studies in Arabic and Islam, Jerusalem, 1979
Siyar	al-Dhahabī, Siyar a'lām al-nubalā', Beirut, 1984.
Succession	Wilferd Madelung, The Succession to Muhammad, Cambridge,
	1997.
Tadhkira	al-Dhahabī, Tadhkirat al-ḥuffāz, Beirut, 1998.
Taqdima	Ibn Abī Ḥātim, Taqdimat al-ma'rifa, Hyderabad, 1952.
$Taqrar{\imath}b$	Ibn Hajar, Tagrīb al-tahdhīb, Beirut, 1996.
ŢK 2001	Ibn Sa'd, Kitāb al-tabaqāt al-kabīr, ed. 'Alī Muḥammad
	'Umar, Cairo, 2001.
ZDMG	Zeitschrift der Deutschen Morgenländischen Gesellschaft, 1847

CHAPTER ONE

INTRODUCTION

I.l

The purpose of this book is to demonstrate the critical role played by <code>hadīth</code> scholars in the articulation of Sunnī Islam during the first half of third/ninth century. Despite the fact that the two most esteemed Sunnī books after the Qur'ān in the eyes of Sunnī Muslims, namely the <code>Sahīh</code>s of Muḥammad b. Ismā'īl al-Bukhārī and Muslim b. al-Ḥajjāj, are masterpieces of <code>hadīth</code> literature, the accomplishments of individual <code>hadīth</code> scholars have been ignored largely by European and American scholars for the past century.¹ The quint-essential Sunnī disciplines of <code>hadīth</code> compilation and criticism remain essentially unexamined by modern scholarship, perhaps partly due to Ignaz Goldziher's assertion long ago that "the science of tradition also was past its prime with its first classics."² This study not only departs sharply from this tradition of neglect of the <code>hadīth</code> literature, but argues that the fundamental principles of Sunnī Islam

The only two studies of individual hadīth critics of which I am aware are Christopher Melchert's article on al-Bukhārī's al-Tārīkh al-kabīr and Eeric Dickinson's analysis of Ibn Abī Hātim al-Rāzī's Tagdina; see Christopher Melchert, "Bukhārī and Early Hadith Criticism," JAOS, CXXI, 1 (2001), 7-19 and Eeric Dickinson, The Development of Early Sunnite Hadith Criticism (Leiden: Brill, 2001). Juynboll's article on the critic Shu'ba b. al-Hajjāj is quite idiosyncratic, since he asserts that Shu'ba invented several extremely widespread hadith and credits him with the elevation of Anas b. Mālik to the status of a Companion of the Prophet (sahābī), the forging of pro-Ansārī and eschatological hadīth, and even the invention of historical reports; Juynboll, "Shu'ba b. al-Hajjāj (d. 160/776) and his position among the traditionists of Basra," Le Muséon, 111 (1998), 187-226. A very different portrait of Shu'ba will emerge below in the fourth chapter. Harald Motzki's ground-breaking study of 'Abd al-Razzāg al-San'ānī's Musannaf, Die Anfänge der islamischen Jurisprudenz (Stuttgart, 1991) has been translated by Marion H. Katz as The Origins of Islamic Jurisprudence: Meccan Figh before the Classical Schools (Leiden: Brill, 2002) and demonstrates the extraordinary potential that this early text has to shed light on the nature of hadith and law during the first two centuries of Islam.

² Ignaz Goldziher, Muslim Studies, ed. and trans. S. M. Stern, II (Chicago: Aldine Atherton, 1971), 246. The original text was published as Muhammedanische Studien (Halle: 1889–90).

were articulated initially by a coterie of master hadīth scholars on the eve of the compilation of the Ṣaḥīḥs of al-Bukhārī and Muslim.

I.2 The traditional theological and legal approaches to Sunnī Islam

The primary Muslim sources that modern scholars have studied in their attempts to unravel the early history and development of Sunnī Islam have been almost exclusively of a theological or legal nature. Three of the leading scholars to embrace the theological approach are Montgomery Watt, Fazlur Rahman, and Josef van Ess. Watt acknowledges that his primary sources are the classic works of the Muslim scholars of sectarianism and divides the growth of Islamic thought into three phases entitled "Beginnings" (632-750 CE), "Century of Struggle" (750-850), and "Triumph of Sunnism" (850-945).3 His book provides a lucid presentation of the four major sectarian groups of Islam in the Umayyad period (Khawārij, Qadariyya, Murji'a, Shī'a) and traces their transformation in the 'Abbāsid era into the various groups of Mu'tazila, Sunnīs, and Shī'a. Watt relies heavily upon an early Murji'ī treatise and the works of Abū l-Hasan al-Ash'arī (d. 324/935-6) for his discussion of the articulation of Sunnī Islam, and postulates that "it was the early tenth century which witnessed the essential part of the process of the polarization of Islam into Sunnite and Shi'ite." The scholars of hadith receive a scant five pages in this story, and the result is a narrative that gives excessive weight to a few theological works and ignores the major books of hadith and prosopography that were being compiled throughout the third/ninth century.

Fazlur Rahman's recently published posthumous work is his clearest articulation of what he calls the "formation of Sunni orthodoxy."⁵

The importance of theology in this presentation is evident in his observation that "developments within Sunnī orthodoxy can be viewed as the culmination of a process that was an immediate reaction against the Mu'tazila and to some extent the Shī'cī."6 Shahrastanī's interpretation of irjā' is quoted at length in this chapter, and Fazlur Rahman considers the predestinarian feature of the Murji'a to be a critical component of the first stage of Sunnism. The second stage of Sunnism was brought about by al-Ash'arī, whose cardinal sin, in Fazlur Rahman's eyes, was that "he defined his extreme position by rejecting the idea that humanity can be validly said to act at all, let alone freely." The second chapter explores the impacts of the "inja"ist mentality" in the centuries following al-Ash'arī on Sunnī Islam, a period that is characterized by political apathy and sheer passivity through mystical escapism. The role of hadīth compilation and criticism in this process receives mention only in its negative capacity to supply pro-predestinarian forgeries to buttress the theological tenets of the Murji'a and proto-Sunnīs in their struggles against the free will Qadariyya and Mu'tazila. While it is no doubt true that both Murji'ī ideas and the seminal scholar Abū l-Hasan al-Ash'arī played roles in the articulation of Sunnī Islam, these two books of Watt and Fazlur Rahman should make it clear just how limited an understanding of the development of Sunnī Islam can be ascertained by merely studying the handful of relatively small classical Muslim works concerned with sectarianism and theology.

Van Ess's magisterial *Theologie und Gesellschaft* fuses both the theological approach with what might be called a prosopographical approach to the early development of Islam. His basic methodology is to assemble all of the available biographical information of every individual who is affiliated with any sectarian group in any Islamic source. Thus we find exhaustive lists of Murji'a, Qadarīs, and, of course, Mu'tazila, as well as any information pertaining to their theological beliefs that van Ess has managed to unearth. Muhammad Zaman has observed that this approach has the unfortunate consequence of

³ Montgomery Watt, *The Formative Period of Islamic Thought* (Oxford: Oneworld, 1998 [1973]). The sources listed on page one include the heresiographical books of 'Abd al-Qāhir al-Baghdādī and al-Shahrastānī, as well as *Maqālāt al-islāmiyyīn* of Abū l-Ḥasan al-Ash'arī (d. 324/935–6).

¹ The Formative Period, 270-1. The Murji'ī tract is al-Figh al-akbar, a translation of which can be found in A. J. Wensinck, The Muslim Creed: its Genesis and Historical Development (Cambridge, 1932).

³ Fazlur Rahman, Revival and Reform in Islam, ed. Ibrahim Moosa (Oxford, 2000). Chapter 1 is titled "Early sects and formation of Sunni Orthodoxy." Fazlur Rahman's Islam (second edition, Chicago, 1979), does contain a chapter on hadith, but it is quite clear from its contents that he has not applied his sharp analytical mind thor-

oughly to any of the major works of the hadith literature that have been studied in this project.

⁶ Revival and Reform, 33.

Revival and Reform, 57.

¹⁸ Josef van Ess, *Theologie und Gesellschaft* (Berlin, 1991-7). See, for example volume II, 54-78 for the identification of 51 Qadarī *hadīth* scholars of Basra.

virtually ignoring the important relations between the 'Abbasid caliphs and the "proto-Sunnīs" of the third century,9 and it should be noted that the hadīth scholars in general are largely ignored too, presumably because the vast majority of them were not affiliated with any sectarian group.10 In fact, it is somewhat odd to be introduced to the extraordinary Kufan hadīth scholar and jurist Sufyān al-Thawrī as part of "anti-Murji'ī trends"11 and the extremely significant Basran hadīth scholars Ayyūb al-Sakhtiyānī, Sulaymān al-Taymī, and 'Abdullāh b. 'Awn as part of "die Opposition gegen 'Amr b. 'Ubaid"12 since their identities and contributions to Islamic civilization probably had relatively little to do with being in opposition to these early sectarian groups and individuals. While van Ess has provided an immense service in his presentation of the most extensive lists of Murji'a and Qadarīs of the first two centuries of Islam, it has come at the cost of neglecting the creative disciplines of hadith compilation and criticism that were maturing in the shadow of the Mu'tazilī florescence and the mihna13 and whose practitioners, in my opinion, articulated the core principles of Sunnī Islam.

The second major approach towards the historical development of Islam focuses upon the rise of the legal schools (madhāhib). The most influential work in this domain is Joseph Schacht's Origins of Muhammadan Jurisprudence. This book is based almost exclusively on an acute reading of eleven legal treatises of Muḥammad b. Idrīs al-Shāfi'ī (d. 204/820), the Muvaṭṭa' of Mālik b. Anas (d. 179/795) and various legal works of Muḥammad b. al-Ḥasan al-Shaybānī (d. 189/805). The basic picture of the historical development of Islamic law that Schacht describes consists of an initial phase of "ancient schools" in Medina, Iraq, and Syria that were deeply influenced by

⁹ Muhammad Qasim Zaman, Religion and Politics under the Early Abbāsids (Leiden: Brill, 1997),-4.

"Umaiyad practice," followed by a radical transformation through the legal theories of al-Shāfi'ī into what have been known to this day as the four Sunnī madhāhib, or schools of law. This periodization has been accepted widely by modern scholars, such as Marshall Hodgson, although Hodgson remarks perceptively in a footnote that "perhaps [Schacht] gives too much credit to al-Shāfi'ī" in this schema. Furthermore, Harald Motzki and John Burton have argued that there exists little evidence that Schacht's concept of "Umayyad administrative practice" exerted any influence on the development of Islamic law. While this basic historical outline of the development of the main Sunnī schools of law more or less follows the contours depicted by Muslim scholars, such as Abū Ishāq al-Shīrāzī (d. 476/1083), Schacht achieved a great deal of attention for his extreme opinions concerning the hadīth and, given the fundamental role of hadīth literature in this book, it is necessary for us to address them briefly.

Schacht, who was deeply influenced by the work of Ignaz Gold-ziher, 19 argues in *Origins of Muhammadan Jurisprudence* that:

l) A great many traditions (hadīth) were put into circulation only after al-Shāfi'ī's time.

¹⁵ Note that Schacht refers to the Sunnī schools of law as the "orthodox" schools of law (for example, *Origins*, p. 6); it is clear that he equates Sunnism with orthodoxy throughout this work.

The relatively rare employment of sectarian labels by hadith critics is demonstrated below in chapter VII.6.

Theologie und Gesellschaft, III, 221-28.

¹² Ibid., II, 342-70.

The relative unimportance of the *miḥna*, or "Inquisition," inaugurated by the Caliph al-Ma'mūn and terminated by al-Mutawakkil with regard to *ḥadīth* scholarship is analyzed below in chapter V.3.

Joseph Schacht, The Origins of Muhammadan Jurisprudence (Oxford, 1953). A contemporary scholar who publishes extensively on Sunnī Islam from the legal perspective is Christopher Melchert; see his book The Formation of the Sunnī Schools of Law: 9th-10th Centuries C.E. (Brill, 1997).

¹⁶ Marshall Hodgson, *The Venture of Islam*, I (Chicago, 1974), 324. This periodization is presented lucidly in the "Masters of *figh*" chart on p. 319. It has been refuted strongly by Wael Hallaq, who argues that Schacht's thesis "creates a detour in early Islamic legal history, a detour that is supported by neither common sense nor the evidence of the early sources;" Wael Hallaq, "From Regional to Personal Schools of Law? A Reevaluation," *Islamic Law and Society*, 8.1 (2001), 1–26.

¹⁷ See Motzki, The Origins of Islamic Jurisprudence, 296 and John Burton, An Introduction to the Hadīth (Edinburgh, 1994), xxii. The theories of both Schacht and Goldziher are compared and mildly critiqued by Burton in his introduction (ix-xxv). His personal opinion, that hadīth should be understood as exegesis of various "obscurities" manifest in the Qur'an, is intriguing but not particularly convincing. Marion Katz's recent book has, pace Burton, found significant Umayyad interference in the shaping of Islamic law in the realm of ritual purity (tahāra); see chapter three of Marion Holmes Katz, Body of Text (Albany: State University of New York Press, 2002).

¹⁸ Abū Ishāq's useful little book of the history of Muslim jurists is arranged geographically prior to the foundation of five Sunnī schools of law (madhāhib), and then by school until his day. However, he discusses legal scholars from nine cities or regions in the pre-madhhab period, as opposed to Schacht's focus on merely Iraq (Kufa), Ḥijāz (Mecca and Medina), and Syria; see Abū Ishāq al-Shīrāzī, Ṭabaqāt al-fuqahā', ed. Ihsān 'Abbās (Beirut, 1970).

¹⁹ Goldziher's eight chapters on hadīth in Muslim Studies will be discussed below in a few paragraphs.

- 2) The first considerable body of legal traditions (hadīth) from the Prophet originated towards the middle of the second century
- 3) The *isnāds* show a tendency to grow backwards and to claim higher and higher authority until they arrive at the Prophet
- 4) The evidence of legal traditions carries us back to about the year 100 AH only 20

Although several scholars have questioned and attempted to refute these main points,²¹ it is probably most instructive here to explain how Schacht arrived at such radical conclusions. The most significant errors of Schacht, in my opinion, were his choice of sources and his general understanding of hadith.²² While it is logical to use legal treatises by a few prominent scholars in order to understand their individual styles of legal reasoning, it is a grave error to ignore entirely the evidence present in hadith collections that were compiled simultaneously with and prior to the lives of these jurists.²³ How is it possible that a generation or two of scholars invented tens of thousands of hadith between the lifetimes of al-Shāfi'ī (d. 204/820) and Ibn Ḥanbal (d. 241/855)? The only way to ignore this question is to blind oneself to the 30,000-hadīth Musnad of the latter and adhere to works of scholars who are rarely, if ever, included among the lists of the great compilers and critics of hadīth.²⁴ Indeed, the thought of

20 Schacht, Origins, 4-5.

espousing a theory of *hadīth* on the basis of a few books that have never been considered part of the genre of *hadīth* literature seems to be risky at best, and methodologically unsound at worst.

Yet even if Schacht considered all of the hadīth in the classical collections highly suspect, there is another genre of works, crucial to this book, which he should have investigated more carefully prior to his arrival at such radical conclusions. This is the genre of biographical dictionaries, enormous works which contain succinct entries on thousands of scholars in the disciplines of hadīth transmission, law (figh), poetry, and other arts and sciences. 25 The earliest extant biographical dictionary of religious scholars is Kītāb al-tabagāt al-kabīr of Muhammad b. Sa'd (d. 230/845), a younger contemporary of the jurist al-Shāfi'ī, upon whom Schacht relied so heavily for his theories.26 Ibn Sa'd's book is a veritable history of thousands of hadīth transmitters and is arranged both geographically and chronologically. The basic unit of time is the tabaga, or generation, and Ibn Sa'd groups scholars according to their primary city or region of residence, generation by generation, back to earliest generation of Muslims, the ṣaḥāba, or Companions of the Prophet.27 One would almost have to consider this entire multi-volume book to be a forgery in order to subscribe to Schacht's theses. Although Schacht cites the Leiden edition of Ibn Sa'd's book in his bibliography, it is clear that he rejected

²¹ The first serious alternative proposals and refutations of Schacht's theories was by Nabia Abbott in Studies in Arabic Literary Papyri, II, Qur'ānic Commentary and Tradition (Chicago, 1967) and Fuat Sezgin in Geschichte des arabischen Schrifttums, I (Leiden, 1967). The former study was based on Abbott's careful reading of books pertaining to the disciplines of hadīth transmission and old papyri fragments of hadīths, and the latter was done so on Sezgin's thorough familiarity with early Arabic manuscripts and the bibliographical literature. A full book-length refutation of Schacht's book is M. Mustapha al-Azami, On Schacht's Origins of Muhammadan Jurisprudence (Oxford: The Islamic Texts Society, 1985). Finally, Harald Mozki's recently cited book, The Origins of Islamic Jurisprudence, and his articles "Der Fiqh des Zuhrī: die Quellenproblematik," Der Islam, 68 (1991), 1–44 and "Quo vadis Hadīt-Forschung?" Der Islam, 73 (1996), 40–80 and 193–231, address many of the problematic theses regarding hadīth propounded by Schacht and his disciple G. H. A. Juynboll.

This opinion has been articulated by M. M. Azami; see his Studies in Early Hadith Literature, Third edition (Indianapolis: American Trust Publications, 1992), 247.

²³ Motzki astutely remarks that the two earliest critical reviews of Schacht's theories came from A. Guillaume and J. W. Fück, scholars who found a contradiction between his new ideas and their own research on the Sīra of Ibn Ishāq, a work that contains hadīth and predates all of the legal texts that Schacht examined; see The Origins of Islamic Jurisprudence, 28–9.

²⁴ I show below in the fourth chapter that, of Schacht's four main authorities, only Mālik b. Anas was considered a major authority in hadīth by a majority of the

master critics of the third through sixth Islamic centuries. Al-Shāfi'ī is only included in two scholars' lists (those of Ibn Ḥibbān and Ibn 'Adī) and al-Shaybānī in one (that of al-Ḥākim al-Naysābūrī). Abū Yūsuf is not mentioned at all.

²⁵ The best overview and introduction to the world of biographical dictionaries is Wadad al-Qādī, "Biographical Dictionaries: Inner Structure and Cultural Significance," *The Book in the Islamic World*, ed. George N. Atiyeh (Albany, 1995), 93–122.

²⁶ Ibn Sa'd, al-Tabaqāt al-kubrā (Beirut: Dār Iḥyā' al-Turāth al-'Arabī, 1995–6). For a discussion of the complicated publishing history of al-Tabaqāt al-kabīr and its role in this book, see V.4.1. The only complete edition of this book is the 2001 Cairo edition edited by 'Alī Muḥammad 'Umar; I refer to this edition with the abbreviation TK 2001 and employ it extensively in chapters seven and eight. It should be noted that although Ibn Sa'd was a younger contemporary of al-Shāfi'ī (who settled in Egypt), he makes no mention of him anywhere in his book. Ibn Sa'd's opinion of Mālik is very positive, whereas his opinions of al-Shaybānī and Abū Yūsuf are qualified by their quality of being "overwhelmed" by legal reasoning (ghuliba bi-l-ra'y) which diminished their accuracy in hadīth transmission; see al-Tabaqāt al-kubrā, V, 287–90 (Mālik); VII, 162 (Abū Yūsuf) and 164 (al-Shaybānī).

²⁷ For a broad survey of biographical dictionaries arranged according to generations (tabaqāt) of scholars, see Ibrahim Hafsi, "Recherches sur le genre tabaqāt dans la literature arabe," Arabica, xxiii (1976), 227–65; xxiv (1977), 1–41, 150–86. The topic of tabaqāt will be discussed in much greater detail below in II.3.

the veracity of the vast majority of its contents when he postulated his theories concerning hadith transmission.28

Schacht's third major error, after ignoring all of the evidence found in early hadīth books and biographical dictionaries, was to base his conclusions on a very limited number of "legal" hadīth.29 The "Index of Legal Problems" at the end of Origins of Muhammadan Jurisprudence reveals Schacht's preference for issues pertaining to obligations, sale, and penal law and his disinterest in laws pertaining to acts of worship, such as prayer and fasting.30 Indeed, this finding is not surprising, as a cursory glance at the contents of either al-Jāmic al-ṣaghīr or al-Jāmi al-kabīr attributed to his primary source, al-Shaybānī, reveals little interest in pious devotion and great attention to commercial and criminal law.31 Finally, the fact that many hadīth have nothing to do with the sharifa obligates the researcher to go beyond the texts of a few prominent jurists prior to the formulation of any sweeping theory of this literature.³²

The crucial importance of appropriate source selection for the investigation of the emergence of Sunnism in the third/ninth century should be obvious by now. It should also be clear that the relatively short theological and legal treatises that have hitherto been used to shed light on the development of the religion of Islam in its first centuries are insufficient for the task at hand. The works of Watt, Fazlur Rahman, Schacht, and even Hodgson leave us with the erroneous impression that the articulation of Sunnism was largely

²⁸ Eerik Dickinson seems to have fallen into the same trap as Schacht, as he has ignored entirely the contents of Ibn Sa'd's al-Tabaqat al-kabīr in his recent book The Development of Early Sunnite Hadīth Criticism (Leiden: Brill, 2001). I challenge his dating of the origins of hadith-transmitter criticism in chapter four.

This error was discerned by Burton, although he felt that it skewed Schacht's understanding of figh instead of the hadith; see An Introduction to the Hadith, xviii.

³¹ Shaybānī's interests should be contrasted with the *Muwaṭṭa*' of Mālik, also used extensively by Schacht, the first half of which is devoted to issues pertaining to prayer, charity, fasting, and pilgrimage.

the result of two scholars, al-Ash'arī and al-Shāfi'ī, and that a few other jurists, like Mālik b. Anas, Muhammad b. al-Hasan al-Shaybānī, the Qādī Abū Yūsuf, and Ibn Hanbal, played a strong supporting role in this endeavor. Van Ess, on the other hand, despite his description of hundreds of individuals, prefers to credit the emergence of Sunnism to the intellectual atmosphere of the city of Baghdad rather than to any circle of scholars in particular.³³ It is therefore necessary to turn to the hadīth literature and its auxiliary disciplines in order to break the hegemony of the theological and legal approaches to the early construction of Sunnī Islam.

I.3 Sunnī hadīth literature: its nature and utility for this project

The Sunnī hadīth literature consists of three major genres of works: hadīth collections, biographical dictionaries of hadīth-transmitters, and expositions of the "hadīth disciplines" ('ulūm al-ḥadīth). Muḥammad Zubayr Siddīgī discusses briefly sixteen major hadīth collections and six biographical dictionaries in Hadīth Literature.34 Included in this list are the Muwatta' of Mālik b. Anas, the Musnad of Ibn Hanbal, and al-Tabaqāt al-kabīr of Ibn Sa'd. Siddīgī also draws attention to the three other early extant hadīth collections of al-Tayālisī (d. 203/819), 'Abd al-Razzāg al-San'ānī (d. 211/826), and Ibn Abī Shayba (d. 235/849), only one of which has received a monograph by a Western scholar.³⁵ In fact, none of the books mentioned by Siddīqī, including the 'six canonical' hadīth collections, has received a thorough published study in the West.³⁶ One of the goals of this book

³⁴ Muhammad Zubayr Siddīqī, *Hadīth Literature* (Cambridge, 1993).

³⁰ Schacht, Origins, 341-3. Part of the reason for this bias is the fact that Schacht applies modern Western notions of legal categories to classical Islamic law and thus understates, if not ignores, vast regions of Islamic jurisprudence in addition to the extra-legal hadīth literature.

³² Muslim b. al-Hajjāj (d. 261/874) groups hadīth into three broad categories in the introduction to his Sahīh: laws and regulations (sunan al-dīn wa ahkāmih), reward and punishment in the Hereafter (al-thawāb wa l-siqāb), and exhortations to piety (altarghīb wa l-tarhīb); Şahīh Muslim bi-sharh al-Nawawī, I (Beirut: Dār al-Kutub al-'Ilmiyya, 2000), 46-7. Other extra-legal categories of hadīth include Qur'ānic exegesis and prophetic history.

³³ Zaman remarks that van Ess credits Baghdad with causing a 'brain drain' from the older cities of Islam and providing a location for the leveling of theological differences; see Zaman, Religion and Politics under the Early Abbāsids, 161 and van Ess, Theologie und Gesellschaft, III, 29-30.

³⁵ This exception is 'Abd al-Razzāq's Musannaf, which, has been mentioned, is examined by Harald Motzki in The Origins of Islamic Jurisprudence. Marion Katz has also made extensive use of the Muşannafs of 'Abd al-Razzāq and Ibn Abī Shayba in her previously mentioned study of ritual purity Body of Text.

³⁶ The 'six canonical hadīth books' are al-jāmi' al-sahīh of al-Bukhārī, the Sahīh of Muslim, and the Sunan works of Abū Dāwūd (d. 275/888), al-Tirmidhī (d. 279/892), al-Nasā'ī (d. 303/915), and Ibn Māja (d. 273/886). We shall see below in chapter 2, that Ibn al-Salāh (d. 643/1245) considered only the first five of these texts to be the most important hadith collections. See Mugaddima Ibn al-Salāh, ed. 'Ā'isha 'Abd al-Rahmān bint al-Shātī' (Cairo, 1990), 651-2.

is to facilitate future study of these extremely significant Muslim texts and offer fresh conceptual and practical approaches to this vast, misunderstood, and largely unexplored literature.³⁷

It is necessary that we examine briefly the most influential study on hadīth in European scholarship, namely Ignaz Goldziher's eight chapters of Muhammedanische Studien published in 1890, in order to identify some of its strengths and weaknesses.³⁸ Goldziher continues to be recognized as one of the primary founders of the modern European discipline of Islamic Studies, and his fame lies in part because of his arguments that much of the hadith literature was fabricated.³⁹ Unlike Schacht, Goldziher combined both impressive knowledge as to certain details of hadith scholarship along with prejudices that clouded his assertions. Examples of his accurate remarks include the differentiation between hadīth and sunna, 40 the recognition that hadīth criticism began with Ibn 'Awn, Shu'ba b. al-Ḥajjāj, and Ibn al-Mubārak, 11 that Ibn Jurayj and Sa'īd b. Abī 'Arūba were among the first to arrange books according to chapters,42 and that the early hadīth scholars (aṣḥāb al-ḥadīth) paid almost no regard to Abū Hanīfa. 13 Goldziher even uncovered a report that Ibn Ṭāhir al-Maqdisī was

among the first scholars to include Ibn Māja's Sunan among the most esteemed 'six books' of the Sunnī tradition. 44

Despite his best efforts, however, Goldziher made highly questionable assertions in Muslim Studies, perhaps partly due to his belief that the more "natural" and "honest" means of constructing a religious law was the approach employed by the jurists (ashāb al-ra'y), in contrast with the methods of the hadīth scholars. 45 He asserted that "every ra'y or hawa, every sunna and bid'a has sought and found expression in the form of a hadīth" and that the "pious community was ready with great credibility to believe anything that they encountered as a traditional saying of the Prophet."46 A potentially far more serious allegation of his, which I endeavor to refute in the seventh chapter, is that "only in rare cases was it possible to reach agreement on the degree of trustworthiness of a person."47 Finally, Goldziher's propositions that the last "original hadīth work" was the Sahīh of Ibn Hibban (d. 354/965) and that Islamic literature's "fresh immediacy decayed as quickly as it developed . . . giving way to dry and lifeless compilation"48 not only reflect the dearth of sources that Goldziher had at his disposal when he was formulating his theories about hadīth, but reflect his personal antipathy towards the very tradition of hadīth compilation that inevitably impacted his theses that have carried so much weight over the past century.

One basic question remains, though: Why should we turn to the <code>hadīth</code> literature in order to understand the development of Sunnī Islam? The first reason is the sheer volume of the literature and number of Muslims involved in its transmission over the first several centuries of Islamic civilization. The first large books, called <code>musannaf</code>

³⁷ It should be noted that the state of the field for Imāmī Shī'ī hadīth is not much better than that for the Sunnī literature. A useful introduction to the four earliest 'canonical' hadīth books of the Imāmī Shī'a is Robert Gleave, "Between Hadīth and Figh: The 'canonical' Imāmī collections of akhbār," Islamic Law and Society, 8.3 (2001), 350–82. As for Ismā'īlī, Zaydī, or Khārijī hadīth, I am not aware of anything at this time in European languages.

³⁸ See above note 2 for the relevant bibliographical information.

³⁹ For testimonies of Goldziher's seminal role in the foundation of Islamic studies, see the introduction to *The Jewish Discovery of Islam*, ed. Martin Kraemer (Tel Aviv: The Moshe Dayan Center for Middle Eastern and African Studies, 1999), 13–17 as well as Lawrence Conrad's essay "Ignaz Goldziher on Ernest Renan: from Orientalist Philology to the Study of Islam" contained within it (pp. 137–180). Herbert Berg credits the entire school of skepticism with regard to *isnāds* to the work of Goldziher, whereas the school that argues for their veracity is associated with Fuat Sezgin; see Berg, *The Development of Exegesis in Early Islam* (Richmond, Surrey: Curzon, 2000), 9–12 and 49–50. Berg's own low opinion concerning the authenticity of the literature can be found on page 215 of his book: "Isnads, therefore were attached to material from the beginning of the 3rd century... after which these isnads, like the matns to which they were attached, continued to be subject to organic growth."

⁴⁰ Muslim Studies, II, 24.

⁴¹ *Ibid.*, II, 135. This opinion is supported by our findings in chapters 4 and 8. ⁴² *Ibid.*, II, 196. However, Goldziher felt that these books had "nothing to do with the collecting of *hadīth*," perhaps due to his assumption that the majority of the transmitted material contained within these books did not purport to go back to the Prophet Muhammad.

⁴³ Ibid., II, 81 and 235.

¹⁴ Ibid., II, 240.

⁴⁵ *Ibid.*, II, 78.

⁴⁶ Ibid., II, 126 and 133, respectively.

⁴⁷ *Ibid.*, II, 143. If by this statement Goldziher means that it was unusual for critics to apply the *identical* grades to transmitters, he is of course correct. Although later biographical dictionaries often include dissenting opinions concerning a transmitter's overall reliability, we shall see in our comparison of the grades of Ibn Sa'd, Ibn Ma'īn, and Ibn Ḥanbal in chapter seven that there was a high level of consensus as to the whether individual transmitters were trustworthy. See also the appendices of my doctoral dissertation "The Arts of Ḥadūh Compilation and Criticism: A study of the emergence of Sunnī Islam in the third/ninth century," Unpublished Ph.D. thesis (University of Chicago, 2002), 466–506.

⁴⁸ Ibid., II, 247 and 245, respectively. I argue below in chapter 3 that the last original hadīth compilations date to the fifth/eleventh century.

or taṣnīf ("compilations arranged by categories"), in the Islamic tradition were probably hadīth works that were compiled in the middle second/late eighth century. ⁴⁹ The vast scope of these works, as well as those of the following century, indicates the deep conviction a significant number of Muslim scholars felt towards the importance of this material prior to the legal theories of al-Shāfi'ī that formally raised this corpus of literature to the status of divine revelation, albeit secondary to the Qur'ān.

A second, and more important reason to examine these texts is the remarkable persistence of value the most authoritative <code>hadīth</code> books have held in the Sunnī Muslim conscience. The <code>Jāmi'</code> al-sahīh of Muḥammad b. Ismā'īl al-Bukhārī (d. 256/870) and the <code>Sahīh</code> of Muslim b. al-Ḥajjāj (d. 261/874) have been considered the two most respected works after the Qur'ān since at least the fourth/tenth century. Whereas the Sunnī schools of law have fluctuated in number over the centuries and developed their own individual corpuses of texts, the two <code>Sahīh</code>s of al-Bukhārī and Muslim have shared a consistent degree of reverence to all Sunnī Muslims, regardless of rite. This achievement is even more impressive in light of the existence of later

compilations of *ḥadīth* by preeminent scholars throughout the fourth/tenth and fifth/eleventh centuries.⁵³

The success and resilience of the two <code>Sahīh</code> books must be seen as being directly correlated to the high opinion in which their two compilers have been held in the field of <code>hadīth</code> criticism. The process of <code>hadīth</code>-transmitter criticism (<code>al-jarh wa[-]l-ta'dīl</code>) seems to have begun in second/eighth century⁵⁴ and the earliest extant compilations on the reliability of <code>hadīth</code> transmitters include three of the primary texts that I analyze in the seventh chapter of this book: <code>al-Tabaqāt al-kabīr</code> of Ibn Sa'd, 'Abbās al-Dūrī's <code>Tārīkh</code> based on the critical opinions of Yaḥyā b. Ma'īn (d. 233/848), and the 'ilal works of Ibn Ḥanbal.⁵⁵ Al-Bukhārī and Muslim were able to build upon the work of this preceding generation of master <code>hadīth</code>-transmitter critics, some of whom were their direct teachers, and it is not a coincidence that al-Bukhārī's books of criticism have acquired the exalted position as the most authoritative books in this genre.⁵⁶

⁴⁹ The first large books of this nature were compiled by Ḥammād b. Salama (d. 167/784) and Ibn Abī 'Arūba (d. 156/773) according to Shams al-Dīn al-Dhahabī (d. 748/1348); *Tadhkirat al-huffāz*, I (Beirut: Dār al-Kutub al-'Ilmiyya, 1998), 134 and 151. Ibn 'Adī (d. 365/976) quotes 'Abd al-Razzāq as crediting Ibn Jurayj (d. 150/767) and al-Awzā'ī (157/774) with this distinction; see al-Kāmil fī du'afā' al-nyāl, I (Beirut: Dār al-Fikr, 1985), 100.

³⁶ Goldziher credits the basis for their authority upon the consensus (*ijmā*) of the (Sunnī) Muslim community; *Muslim Studies*, II, 236.

⁵¹ Abū Isḥāq al-Shīrāzī includes chapters for the following five schools in his *Tabaqāt al-fuqahā*': Shāfi'ī, Ḥanafī, Mālikī, Ḥanbalī, and Zāhirī. He also makes reference to the short-lived school of al-Ṭabarī (p. 93). Ibn al-Ṣalāḥ substitutes the school of Sufyān al-Thawrī for that of the Zāhiriyya (*Muqaddima Ibn al-Ṣalāḥ*, 649). Al-Suyūṭī ineludes the Zāhiriyya and school of Ṭabarī, and adds the schools of al-Awzā'ī and Ishāq b. Rāhawayh (d. 238/853); *Tadrīb al-rāwī*, II (Beirut, 1998), 204.

⁵² The veneration of both of these books is all the more surprising given the fact that the anonymous hadīth scholars whom Muslim chastises in the introduction to his Sahīh for requiring proof that actual contact between every two transmitters in an isnād occurred (instead of merely being satisfied that they were contemporaries) is identified by al-Dhahabī as none other than al-Bukhārī and his teacher 'Alī b. al-Madīnī; see al-Dhahabī, Siyar a'lām al-nubalā', XII (Beirut: Mu'assasat al-Risāla, 1986), 573. Note that Juynboll was unable to identify these anonymous individuals and guessed that Muslim was referring to al-Husayn al-Karābīsī, see his article "Muslim's introduction to his Sahīh," JSAI, 5 (1984), 293–4.

⁵³ Many of these scholars will be mentioned in the historical overview in chapter three. The massive hadīth collections of al-Bayhaqī (d. 458/1066), Ibn 'Abd al-Barr (d. 463/1071), and Abū Muḥammad al-Baghawī (d. 516/1122) basically mark the end of original hadīth collections. (Even though Ibn 'Abd al-Barr's large compilations al-Tamhīd and al-Istidhkār are technically commentaries on the Muwatṭa' of Mālik, they incorporate so much additional material that they should be considered 'original' works in their own right). There seems to have been a shift in the fifth/eleventh and sixth/twelfth centuries towards the synthesis and exegesis of the carlier famous collections, so that by the seventh/thirteenth century Ibn al-Ṣalāḥ remarked that hadīth not found in earlier works should, in general, be shunned; Muqaddima Ibn al-Ṣalāḥ, 307. The most likely practical reason for this transformation was the fact that the chain of transmitters (isnād) between the Prophet Muḥammad and the students of hadīth had grown too long after five centuries, so as to render it unwieldy and unreliable.

⁵⁴ Three periods of *ḥadīth*-transmitter criticism are identified in detail in chapter four.

⁵⁵ The various recensions of these latter two works are discussed in V.4.2 and V.4.3. Other major *ḥadīth*-transmitter critics of this generation include 'Alī b. al-Madīnī, Ibn Rāhawayh, and Abū Ḥafṣ al-Fallās; see below, chapters four and five, for more details.

⁵⁶ These books include al-Tārīkh al-kabīr and al-Tārīkh al-awsat. The editor of the 1998 Riyadh edition of al-Tārīkh al-awsat, Muḥammad b. Ibrāhīm al-Laḥidān, has demonstrated that the 1977 Aleppo edition of al-Tārīkh al-saghīr is actually al-Tārīkh al-awsat (I, 30, 55-7). Since al-Tārīkh al-saghīr is solely concerned with the ṣaḥāba, it would be of limited value for hadīth-transmitter criticism (the references to this book in Sezgin, GAS, I, p. 133, should probably be corrected to read al-Tārīkh al-awsat). Another small work of criticism by al-Bukhārī that has been published is Kītāb al-du'afā' al-ṣaghīr, ed. Buran al-Dannawi (Beirut, 1984). Ibn al-Ṣalāḥ declares al-Bukhārī's al-Tārīkh al-kabīr to be one of the fundamental texts in his reading list

I.4 Methodology

I.4.1

The two most intimidating features of the *hadīth* literature are its sheer volume and the magnitude of the number of transmitters involved in its historical development.⁵⁷ Given this challenging situation, it is critical to select both the proper guides and techniques for organizing the material in such a way that one has a large enough sample of reports and biographies so as to be faithful to the material. Furthermore, the transmission and criticism of *hadīth* continues to this day, over 1400 years after the Prophet Muḥammad's death, wherever Muslims are to be found.⁵⁸ Therefore, this book is divided into two main sections, both of which involve multiple databases that I have designed in order to analyze the prosopographical material present in the biographical dictionaries that I have consulted.

I.4.2 Part I: The Construction of Conceptual and Historical Frameworks for Inquiry

Part I consists of four chapters whose purpose is to move from a broad overview of the development of the Sunnī hadīth literature to the narrow generation of critics who flourished just prior to al-Bukhārī and Muslim. Chapter two relies upon the classification of the hadīth disciplines in 65 categories by Ibn al-Ṣalāḥ (d. 643/1245) in his Muqaddima and several books of al-Dhahabī. I discuss three aspects of Ibn al-Ṣalāḥ's Muqaddima in order to secure the conceptual framework of this project. First, Ibn al-Ṣalāḥ identifies the most significant books and scholars involved in the project of hadīth transmission. 59

for the aspiring hadīth student; Muqaddima Ibn al-Salāh, 433. Christopher Melchert has published an article arguing for the authenticity of al-Tārikh al-kabīr in order to mute the skepticism raised by Norman Calder concerning its attribution to al-Bukhārī, see his "Bukhārī and Early Hadith Criticism" cited in the first footnote of this chapter.

⁵⁸ For a useful survey of some modern debates concerning the *hadīth*, see Daniel Brown, *Rethinking Tradition in Modern Islamic Thought* (Cambridge, 1996).

⁵⁹ Muqaddima Ibn al-Salāḥ, categories 28 and 60 (pp. 432-3 and 649-53).

Secondly, I examine how Ibn al-Ṣalāḥ articulates the fundamental Sunnī position with regard to the didactic authority of all saḥāba. 60 Finally, I show how Ibn al-Ṣalāḥ's entire systematic categorization of the ḥadāth disciplines demonstrates the fundamental role of isnād criticism ('ilm al-rijāl) and the central significance of ḥadāth-transmitter criticism in the venture of Sunnī hadāth scholarship. 61

The second section of chapter two is devoted to the construction of a historical framework for the first seven centuries of Sunnī hadīth scholarship. The primary works that I use for this task are three books by the extraordinary Syrian scholar Shams al-Dīn al-Dhahabī (d. 748/1348), who has been called "the Historian of Islam" (mu'arrikh al-Islām) by his students and successors. 62 Al-Dhahabī is known not only for his magnificent works of history, many of which are arranged according to tabagāt, but as a master critic of hadīth and its transmitters as well. 63 This section discusses al-Dhahabī's use of tabaqāt of varying lengths in his hadīth-transmitter related works, and organizes the master hadīth scholars of the first seven centuries whom he praises in three of his books: Mīzān al-i'tidāl fī nagd al-rijāl, al-Mūgiza fī 'ilm mustalah al-hadīth, and Tadhkirat al-huffāz. I also clarify the utility of the tabaqāt form of periodization for the discussion of hadāth-transmitter criticism in this section, and special attention is devoted to al-Dhahabī's use of the sobriquet Shaykh al-Islām in Tadhkirat al-huffāz.

The third chapter consists of a historical articulation of the development of Sunnī hadīth scholarship on the basis of Ibn al-Ṣalāḥ's and al-Dhahabī's preferred scholars whose identities I uncover in the previous chapter. The twenty-one tabaqāt structure of Tadhkirat al-huffāz has proven expedient for this endeavor, as all of the master scholars mentioned in the Muqaddima of Ibn al-Ṣalāḥ, and al-Dhahabī's Mīzān al-i'tidāl and al-Mūqiza have entries in this book. I have grouped al-Dhahabī's twenty-one tabaqāt into seven phases in order to clarify

60 Muqaddima Ibn al-Ṣalāḥ, category 39 (pp. 485-505).

⁵⁷ An indication of the scale of the project of *hadīth* transmission can be gleaned from the fact that Ibn Hajar mentions 8826 names of men and women whose names appear in the *isnād*s of the six canonical Sunnī books (as well as other early collections) in his concise handbook *Taqrīb al-tahdhīb* (Beirut, 1996).

⁶¹ Muqaddima Ibn al-Ṣalāḥ, category 23 is concerned with hadāth-transmitter criticism (pp. 288–311). Note that 'hadāth-transmitter criticism' is the expression that I am using for the Arabic al-jarḥ wa l-ta'dāl and that it is a more specific discipline than 'hadāth criticism', the latter of which includes criticism of both the isnād and the text (matn).

⁶² For a list of scholars who praise him with this honorific title (*laqab*), see 'Abd al-Sattār al-Shaykh, *al-Ḥāfiz al-Dhahabī* (Damascus, 1994), 335–9.

⁶³ His most famous work of hadīth transmitter criticism, Mīzān al-i'tidāl fī naqd al-njāl, contains entries for 11,053 transmitters; al-Hāfiz al-Dhahabī, 420–3.

the hitherto neglected historical development of hadīth scholarship during the first seven centuries of Islamic civilization. The results of this chapter not only demonstrate the critical importance of the third/ninth century in this venture, but also depict the dynamic vivacity of Sunnī hadīth compilation and criticism throughout the fourth/tenth and fifth/eleventh centuries, long after the compilation of the famous 'six books.'

Chapter four builds upon this historical survey by examining the favorite master scholars of ten famous Sunnī hadīth critics who flourished during the third through seventh phases of hadith scholarship. The critics whose preferences are investigated in this chapter are 'Alī b. al-Madīnī (d. 234/849), Muslim b. al-Hajjāj (d. 261/874), Ibn Abī Hātim (d. 327/939), Ibn Hibbān (d. 354/965), Ibn 'Adī (d. 365/976), al-Hākim al-Naysābūrī (d. 405/1014), al-Khatīb al-Baghdādī (d. 463/1071), Ibn al-Jawzī (d. 597/1201), al-Mizzī (d. 742/1341), and al-Dhahabī. The opinions of these scholars serve as a useful tool for the purpose of identifying three periods and three classes of critics in the history of Sunnī hadīth-transmitter criticism and confirm the crucial role played by the scholars of the third/ninth century in general, and Ibn Macin and Ibn Hanbal in particular. I devote special attention to the first two generations of critics, such as Shu'ba b. al-Ḥajjāj, Sufyān b. 'Uyayna, and Ibn al-Mubārak in order to ascertain whether they really were hadīth critics, or whether later scholars depicted them as such in order to accord this discipline greater authority and prestige, as at least one modern scholar has suggested.64

The fifth chapter of this book zeroes in on the generation of Ibn Sa'd, Ibn Ma'īn, and Ibn Hanbal, since it is first generation of critics for whom we have extensive records of their opinions. The first section of this chapter is a general survey of distinguished Muslim men of letters and religion who flourished during the first half of the third/minth century. The primary source for this database is al-Dhahabī's Siyar a'lām al-nubalā', the tenth and eleventh tabaqāt of which I examine in detail. I devote particular attention to the major hadīth scholars of this age, many of whom were teachers of al-Bukhārī and Muslim. The purpose of this section is to provide a sketch of

the intellectual life at the time of the emergence of Sunnī Islam, in order to better comprehend how the *ḥadīth* scholars of the generation of Ibn Sa'd, Ibn Ma'īn, and Ibn Ḥanbal fit into the greater world community during this period of Islamic civilization.

The second section of chapter five consists of a brief reconsideration of the significance of the infamous *miḥna*, or inquisition, that occurred during reigns of the caliphs al-Ma'mūn, al-Mu'taṣim, and al-Wāthiq. ⁶⁵ This episode has, until recently, been invested with much credit towards the emergence of Sunnism and even the "separation of state and religion." ⁶⁶ A close reading of the aforementioned prosopographical works of al-Dhahabī indicates that the impact of the *miḥna* upon the formation of Sunnī Islam was little more than the reaffirmation of a single theological position that was most likely upheld by the majority of *ḥadīth* transmitters prior to the entire affair. ⁶⁷ If anything, the episode of the *miḥna* has distracted Western historians from investigating the far more historically significant processes of *ḥadīth* compilation and criticism that were occurring in Baghdad during the same period.

The final section of the fifth chapter provides biographical sketches of the three primary scholars of this period—Ibn Sa'd, Ibn Ma'īn and Ibn Ḥanbal—whose works are analyzed in Part II of this book. I pay careful attention to the itineraries of these three men in their quests for hadīth, as well as to the largely obscure lives of their respective primary transmitter-pupils. Thus, I also present the biographies of Ibn Sa'd's pupils Ibn Fahm (d. 289/902) and al-Ḥārith b. Abī

⁶⁴ This is the opinion of Eeric Dickinson in his previously cited work that I endeavor to refute.

⁶⁵ These caliphs ruled from 198/813–218/833, 218/833–227/842, and 227/842–232/47, respectively. The exact termination date of the *mihna* is unclear, and Hinds has argued that it was faded out gradually during the first four or five years of the reign of al-Mutawakkil (232/847–247/861); see Martin Hinds, "mihna," *EI2*, VII, 2–6.

⁶⁶ This last quote comes from the title of Ira Lapidus' 1975 IJMES article "The Separation of State and Religion in the Development of Early Islamic Society," and the exaggerated import of this event is easily observable in Martin Hinds' entry on the milina in the EI2. The importance of the milina has been challenged by Muhammad Qasim Zaman in Religion and Politics under the 'Abbāsids. While Zaman's book offers great insight into the relationship between the state and religious scholars, it pays far closer attention to the state's role in religion avoids analysis of the internal dynamics and compilations of the influential hadīth scholars of this period.

⁶⁷ This theological position is, of course, that the Qur'ān is the "speech of God" (kalām Allāh) and therefore not created. The innovation of the notion of the created Qur'ān is attributed to Jahm b. Ṣafwān (d. 128/746) and was accepted by the Khawārij, most of the Zaydiyya, many of the Imāmī Shī'a, and all of the Mu'tazila; see al-Ash'arī, Maqālāt al-Islāmiyyīn, II (Cairo, 1969), 256-9.

Usāma (d. 282/895), Ibn Ma'īn's student Abū l-Faḍl 'Abbās al-Dūrī (d. 271/884-5), and Ibn Ḥanbal's son and sole compiler of the *Musnad*, 'Abdullāh b. Aḥmad (d. 290/903) at the conclusion of this chapter.

I.4.3 Part II: The Three Principles of Hadīth-Scholar Sunnism: Ṣaḥāba, hadīth-Iransmitter criticism, and a historical vision

Part II explores the nature of the three pillars upon which I argue Sunnī Islam was constructed by the hadīth scholars, namely the collective authority of the saḥāba, the invention and broad application of hadith-transmitter criticism, and a shared historical vision as to paths by which most hadith traversed the two century gulf between the life of the Prophet Muhammad and the compilation of books. Chapter six is devoted to the first of these pillars, namely the collective authority of the sahāba, and begins with an extensive review of the individual sahāba who were involved in the intra-Muslim conflict that plagued the first thirty years of the post-prophetic Islamic community. While the importance of the first fitna upon Islamic thought and group formation is hardly a new discovery, my presentation of the surprisingly large number of sahāba who were involved actively in these early conflicts suggests that the Sunnī principle of the collective probity of the saḥāba was a more radical proposition than is generally acknowledged in the secondary literature.

The next section of the sixth chapter begins with an analysis of two solutions to the problem of the intra-sahāba conflicts that failed to capture the hearts of more than a minority of the Muslim community. The first of these solutions is that put forth by the Imāmī Shī'a, who either interpreted the concept of ridda, normally associated with the rebellious Bedouin tribes who were subdued by Abū Bakr, as a reference to the alleged mass apostasy of the sahāba upon the death of the Prophet Muhammad, or eliminated the sahāba from the discourse altogether by means of superhuman Imāms and creative Qur'ānic exegesis. The other minority solution to the problem of the intra-sahāba conflicts is that of the Zaydiyya and Baghdādī Mu'tazila, which accepted the authority of all of the sahāba except those who fought against 'Alī at Ṣiffīn, and argued strongly for the

superiority of 'Alī over Abū Bakr on the basis of a comparison of their respective qualities.⁶⁹ I discuss the reactions of the Imāmī Shī'a and the Zaydiyya/Baghdādī Mu'tazila to the intra-ṣaḥāba conflicts at some length because they demonstrate both radical and moderate alternative positions to the Sunnī principle of the collective authority of the ṣaḥāba, and may have contributed to the hardening of the Sunnī position on issues such as the superiority of Abū Bakr to 'Alī.

Three Sunnī solutions to the problem of the intra-sahāba conflicts can be discerned in the hadīth literature of the third/ninth century. The first of these solutions is the inclusion of chapters devoted to the merits (fadā'il) of the sahāba in major hadīth compilations, such as the Sahīhs of al-Bukhārī and Muslim and the Musannaf of Ibn Abī Shayba, that praised consistently seventeen male and three female companions of the Prophet Muhammad, several of whom had been on opposing sides in these conflicts. 70 The second solution, encapsulated in Ibn Sa'd's al-Tabaqāt al-kabīr, was to collect biographical information for about 1371 male and 629 female sahāba, in order to demonstrate the collective role of these men and women in the formative period of Islam, as well as distinguish those individuals who embraced Islam the earliest, excelled on the battlefield, or were gifted with superior religious knowledge, from the masses.⁷¹ The final Sunnī solution to the problem of the intra-sahāba violence was the utilization of these men and women strictly for the purpose of hadīth transmission. The example, par excellence, of this solution is Ibn Hanbal's Musnad, which includes at least one hadīth from over seven hundred sahāba as well as a substantial number of reports from thirtytwo of them who were found on all sides of the earliest intra-Muslim

⁶⁸ I base my findings on an analysis of the first section of al-Ṭūsī's abridgement of al-Kashshī's *Ikhtiyār ma'rifat al-rijāl* and two chapters of al-Kulaynī's *Uṣūl al-kāfī*.

⁶⁹ The primary sources for the position of the Baghdādī Mu'tazila are Abū Ja'far al-Iskāfi's (d. 240/854-5) refutation of al-Jāḥiz's al-'Uthmāniyya, his son's book al-Mi'yār wa l-muwāzana, and an important section of Ibn Abī l-Ḥadīd's Sharḥ naḥi al-balāgha. The best introduction to the Zaydī position is Etan Kohlberg, "Some Zaydī Views of the Companions of the Prophet," BSOAS, 39/1 (1976), 91-8.

⁷⁰ The saḥāba who receive sub-chapters (abwāb) in both Ṣaḥāḥs and the Muṣannaf of Ibn Abī Shayba are (in alphabetical order): Abū Bakr al-Ṣiddīq, Abū 'Ubayda b. al-Jarrāḥ, 'Ā'isha bint Abī Bakr, Fāṭima bint Rasūl Allāh, al-Ḥasan b. 'Alī, al-Ḥusayn b. 'Alī, Ibn 'Abbās, Ibn Mas'ūd, Ibn 'Umar, Ja'far b. Abī Ṭālib, Jarīr b. 'Abdullāh, Khadīja bint Khuwaylid, Sa'd b. Abī Waqqāṣ, Sa'd b. Mu'ādh, Ṭalḥa b. 'Ubayd Allāh, 'Umar b. al-Khaṭṭāb, Usāma b. Zayd, 'Uthmān b. 'Affān, and al-Zubayr b. al-'Awwām.

⁷¹ Ibn Sa'd's book also includes what may be the earliest definition of the term ṣaḥābī, which he attributes to his teacher al-Wāqidī; this definition is discussed in chapter VI.4.2.

conflicts. The very structure of this massive book could only affirm the Sunnī principle of the collective authority of the saḥāba in a most tangible manner. My study of these three approaches to the saḥāba in the Sunnī ḥadīth literature indicates that the belief in the collective probity of the saḥāba was arrived at gradually by the articulators of Sunnism over the third/ninth century, and that books such as al-Tabaqāt al-kabīr and the Musnad of Ibn Ḥanbal played a greater role in its ultimate adoption than the chapters devoted to the Companions' virtues in the Ṣaḥāḥs of al-Bukhārī and Muslim.

The second pillar upon which Sunnism was constructed was, in my opinion, the discipline of <code>hadīth</code>-transmitter criticism. I examine the absolute and relative grades employed by Ibn Sa'd, Ibn Ma'īn, and Ibn Hanbal in the seventh chapter, where I uncover both individual styles of criticism as well as an overwhelming consensus regarding the reliability (or lack thereof) of over two hundred <code>hadīth</code>-transmitters. This chapter is of particular significance because it is the first systematic comparative study of the opinions of <code>hadīth</code> critics who were contemporaries of one another and reveals the vivacity of this discipline on the eve of the journeys of al-Bukhārī and Muslim.

The eighth, and final, chapter articulates the implicit historical vision as to how reports of the Prophet Muhammad's utterances and actions were transmitted across five generations, from the saḥāba to the teachers of the generation of Ibn Sa'd, Ibn Ma'īn, and Ibn Hanbal. This chapter makes particularly fruitful use of Ibn Sa'd's unique quantitative grades for several hundred transmitters, information which leads to the discovery of the major shift of the "capital" of hadīth scholarship from Medina to Basra and Kufa during the midsecond/eighth century. While the discipline of hadīth-transmitter criticism distinguished clearly the reliable scholars found in the isnāds of thousands of hadith that were ultimately systematized by Sunnī compilers of the third/ninth century, the historical vision implicit in the works of Ibn Sa'd, Ibn Ma'īn, and Ibn Hanbal identified the networks of the most prominent authorities, all of whose materials served as major components of the most influential books of Sunnī Islam.

I.5 Conclusion

The goal of this book is to analyze the origins of the Sunnī articulation of Islam from the angle of the vast Sunnī hadīth literature. I have proposed, on the basis of a close reading of major works by al-Dhahabī, Ibn Sa'd, Ibn Ma'īn, and Ibn Hanbal, that Sunnism was premised initially upon three fundamental principles. The first of these was the collective authority of the sahāba, several of whom who, despite their bitter internal struggles during the first thirty years after the Prophet's death, played an indispensable role in the core Sunnī venture of hadīth transmission. The second principle was the methodology of hadīth-transmitter criticism that, coupled with a high degree of consensus as to the identities of the most reliable transmitters of the first two centuries of Islam, divided the community of transmitters into those whose reports were acceptable, those whose reports were questionable, and those whose material had to be abandoned. The third, and final, principle was the implicit historical narrative behind the five-generation journey of hadīth from the sahāba to the compilers of the generation of Ibn Sa'd, Ibn Ma'īn, and Ibn Hanbal that unfolded in the cities of Medina, Basra, Kufa, Baghdad, and Mecca. I argue that these three basic principles explain not only the unparalleled success of the Sahīhs of al-Bukhārī and Muslim, but, even more importantly, established a minimal set of requirements for an individual's self-identification as a Sunnī Muslim and that, in turn, may be responsible for the extraordinary popularity of Sunnī Islam over the ages.

PART ONE

THE CONSTRUCTION OF CONCEPTUAL AND HISTORICAL FRAMEWORKS FOR INQUIRY

CHAPTER TWO

TOWARDS AN INITIAL FRAMEWORK: THE CONTRIBUTIONS OF IBN AL-ṢALĀḤ AND AL-DHAHABĪ

II.1

Western studies of hadīth have neglected to unravel the fundamental conceptual and historical frameworks employed by classical Muslim scholars proficient in this discipline. European Scholars such as Joseph Schacht and, in particular, G.H.A. Juynboll, have developed an array of esoteric terms and diagrams for hadīth analysis without seriously investigating how Muslim scholars themselves understood the development of this vast literature. Studies on the hadīth disciplines ('ulūm al-hadīth) are few and far between,2 and I am unaware of anyone who has attempted to sketch the history of the development of the hadīth literature from the death of Muhammad to its florescence in the Mamlūk era. Although the purpose of this book is to demonstrate the significant role played by the third/ninth century hadīth scholars in the articulation of Sunnī Islam, it is necessary to begin this inquiry at the end of the classical period of hadīth compilation in order to assemble the requisite conceptual and historical tools so that we can assess accurately the relative importance of the generation of Ibn Sa'd, Ibn Ma'īn, and Ibn Hanbal in the greater seven-century venture of Sunnī hadīth scholarship.

Schacht's contribution to this discourse is his common-link theory, which he believed could be used to identify the 'inventor' of a hadīth. Juynboll expanded upon this concept and invented such concepts as "partial-common links," "diving isnāds," and "spiders." For a critical review of both Schacht's and Juynboll's concepts of isnād analysis, see Motzki, "Quo vadis Hadīt-Forschung?" See below in chapter eight for an alternative narrative to the insufficient and inaccurate description of the historical development of hadīth put forth by Juynboll in his book Muslim Tradition, 39-76.

² An exception to this state of affairs is Robson's translation of al-Ḥākim al-Naysābūrī's brief treatise An Introduction to the Science of Tradition, being al-Madkhal ilā ma'rifat al-Iklīl by Al Ḥākim Abū 'Abdallāh Muḥammad b. 'Abdallāh al Naisābūrī (London, 1953).

II.2 The Conceptual Framework: Ibn al-Ṣalāḥ and his articulation of the hadīth disciplines

The Sunnī Islamic tradition of the classification of the disciplines of hadīth ('ulūm al-hadīth) is the logical source for the establishment of a conceptual framework for hadīth studies. Ibn al-Salāh's (d. 643/1245) famous book on this topic is the culmination of the efforts of a coterie of scholars who devoted themselves to the systematic explanation of the skills one must have in order to evaluate the qualities of individual hadīth. The earliest treatise on this topic is the introduction to the Sahīh of Muslim b. al-Hajjāj (d. 261/874), which both defends the practice of ranking hadīth-transmitters and proposes a tripartite division of these men into 1) those who are free from defects and controversy, and rich in expertise ($itq\bar{a}n$); 2) those who transmit on the authority of less- than-reliable scholars; 3) those who are accused by most scholars of being suspect (munkar).3 Although this short text is a statement of methodology rather than a treatise of hadīth disciplines, it represents the earliest conceptual approach to the compilation of hadīth by an actual compiler.4

The master hadīth scholar Ibn Ḥajar (d. 852/1448) lists only six significant precursors in the field of "the conventions of the People of hadīth" (iṣṭilāḥ ahl al-ḥadīth) prior to Ibn al-Ṣalāḥ's Muqaddima: al-Muḥaddith al-ṭāṣil of Abū Muḥammad al-Rāmhurmuzī (d. 360/971), al-Maʿrifa fī 'ulūm al-ḥadīth of al-Ḥākim al-Naysābūrī (d. 405/1014), a work by Abū Nuʿaym al-Iṣbahānī (d. 430/1039), a plethora of

books by al-Khaṭīb al-Baghdādī (d. 463/1071), al-Ilmā' of al-Qādī 'Iyāḍ (d. 544/1149), and a pamphlet (juz') by Abū Ḥafṣ al-Mayānijī (d. 580/1184). The book of al-Ḥākim al-Naysābūrī consists of 52 categories (naw') and seems to have provided Ibn al-Ṣalāḥ with both the terminology and structure for his sixty-five category book. The book al-Kīfāya fī 'ilm al-riwāya of al-Khaṭīb al-Baghdādī also deserves special mention, as it packed with minute details concerning hadīth transmission and is cited extensively in the Muqaddima. Despite the importance of these two works, Ibn al-Ṣalāḥ's book not only eclipsed all previous efforts towards the classification of the hadīth disciplines, but has remained unsurpassed, and enormously influential, in the field to this day.

Taqī al-Dīn Abū 'Amr 'Uthmān b. al-Ṣalāḥ al-Shahrazūrī al-Kurdī was born in 577/1181-2 in the village of Sharakhān near Shahrazūr in Irbil.⁸ His father was an important scholar in Shāfi'ī law in the region, and the two of them traveled extensively in order to acquire religious knowledge. Ibn al-Ṣalāḥ is of particular importance for hadīth scholarship because he was one of the last scholars to study with the masters of this discipline in Nishapur, Marw, and Qazvin prior to the Mongol irruption of 616-7/1220-1 that severed these Eastern cities from the central lands of Egypt and Syria.⁹ His transmission of the Ṣaḥīḥs of al-Bukhārī and Muslim and the enormous Sunan of al-Bayhaqī (d. 458/1066) appears to have been especially valuable to his numerous students. Both Ibn al-Ṣalāḥ and his father came to

³ Saḥīḥ Muslim bi-sharḥ al-Nawawī, I, 49-56. The passages describing these three categories are translated and discussed in Tarif Khalidi, Arabic Historical Thought in the Classical Period (Cambridge, 1994), 41. The entire introduction has been translated by G. H. A. Juynboll in "Muslim's Introduction to His Saḥīḥ."

¹ It is possible that Ibn Sa'd's al-Tabaqāt al-kabīr is the earliest conceptualization of the disciplines pertaining to the history of hadīth transmission, and this book is credited with being an authoritative work in both categories 63 (tabaqāt of scholars) and 65 (homelands of transmitters and their places of residence) in Muqaddima Ibn al-Salāh (pp. 665–7 and pp. 672–6, respectively). Al-Shāfi'i's Risāla also contains a somewhat lengthy chapter that focuses on contradictory hadīth and employs several technical terms in its discussion of this material; see Majid Khadduri, al-Imām Muḥammad ibn Idris al-Shāfi'i's al-Risāla fi uṣūl al-fiqh: Treatise on the Foundations of Islamic Jurisprudence, second edition (Cambridge: Islamic Texts Society, 1987), 179–285. The dating of al-Shāfi'īs Risāla has generated some controversy in the Western academy; for a very brief discussion of this controversy, see Christopher Melchert, "Traditionist-Jurisprudents and the Framing of Islamic Law," Islamic Law and Society 8.3 (2001), 394. Al-Shāfi'ī's role in hadīth criticism is explored below in chapter IV.5.

⁵ Muqaddima Ibn al-Ṣalāḥ, 11-2 (editor's introduction).

⁶ Thirty-six of al-Ḥākim's categories can be found almost verbatim in the Ibn al-Ṣalāḥ's text. It should be remarked that the latter work feels far more polished than the former, and the categories are more carefully arranged from a thematic perspective.

The editor of the Muqaddima has tracked down many of the citations of al-Khaṭīb taken from al-Kifāya. Many monographs of al-Khaṭīb are also mentioned in Muqaddima Ibn al-Ṣalāḥ, such as al-Faṣl li-l-waṣl al-mudraj fī l-naql, al-Muttafiq wa l-mukhtalif, Kītāb talkhīṣ al-mutashābih fī l-rasm, and al-Mubhamāt; ibid., 278, 613, 622, and 637.

^{* &#}x27;Ā'isha 'Abd al-Raḥmān has provided a useful biography of Ibn al-Ṣalāḥ on the basis of myriad biographical dictionaries in the introduction to her edition of Muqaddima Ibn al-Ṣalāḥ (pp. 14-38). Al-Dhahabī classifies him as 'Shaykh al-Islām' in the eighteenth tabaqa of Tadhkirat al-ḥuffāz, IV, 149. The biography in Wafayāt al-a'yān (#411) is particularly valuable because Ibn Khallikān (d. 681/1282) was a student of Ibn al-Ṣalāḥ for a year; see Wafayāt al-a'yān, III (Beirut, 1998), 213-5. See also J. Robson, "Ibn al-Ṣalāḥ," EI2, III, 927.

⁹ These master teachers include: al-Mu'ayyad al-Ṭūsī (d. 617/1220), Manṣūr b. 'Abd al-Mu'min al-Farāwī (d. 608/1211-2), and Zaynab al-Sha'riyya in Nishapur; Abū l-Muzaffar 'Abd al-Raḥīm b. al-Sam'ānī (d. 617/1220) in Marw; and Abū l-Qāsim 'Abd al-Karīm b. Muḥammad (d. 617/1220) in Qazvīn; *Muqaddima Ibn al-Salāḥ*, 17-19 and al-Dhahabī, *Tadhkira*, IV, 149.

Syria prior to 616/1219, and his father accepted a teaching position at the Asadiyya madrasa (college) in Aleppo where he remained until his death in 618/1222. Ibn al-Ṣalāḥ acquired teaching positions at three madrasas, including the Ashrafiyya (opened 630/1233), in the Damascus area, and was renowned for his knowledge of ḥadīth and Shāfi'ī jurisprudence. It appears that he composed and taught the Muqaddima, as well as his commentary on the Ṣaḥīḥ of Muslim and a history of Shāfi'ī jurists, during this last phase of his life.¹⁰

A brief survey of the works of scholars who thrived during the two centuries following Ibn al-Salāh illustrates how his Mugaddima became the 'canonical' work of Sunnī hadīth disciplines. 'Ā'isha 'Abd al-Rahmān lists no fewer than seventeen abridgements of, commentaries on, and supplements to the Mugaddima by Mamlūk-era scholars in the useful introduction to her critical edition of this text.11 Several particularly noteworthy books among this list include al-Tagrīb wa-ltavsīr li-ma'rifat sunan al-bashīr al-nadhīr of Ibn al-Salāh's famous student Muhyī l-Dīn al-Nawawī (d. 676/1277), the Islāh Ibn al-Salāh by Ibn Kathīr (d. 774/1373), the one thousand verse poem of al-Zayn al-'Irāgī (d. 806/1403-4), Mahāsin al-Istilāh by al-Sirāj al-Bulgīnī (d. 805/1402-3), 12 Nukat 'alā Ibn al-Salāh by Ibn Hajar (d. 852/1448), and Tadrīb al-Rāwī of al-Suyūtī (d. 911/1505). In fact, it is difficult to find any major Mamlūk-era work concerned with the hadīth disciplines that does not follow the sixty-five category scheme of Ibn al-Salāh other than the noteworthy exceptions of Ibn Daqīq al-'Īd's (d. 702/1303) al-Iqtirāh fī bayān al-istilāh¹³ and Ibn Taymiyya's (d. 728/1328) 'Ilm al-hadīth.14

What are the sixty-five disciplines of <code>hadīth</code> that Ibn al-Ṣalāḥ authoritatively articulated in his <code>Muqaddima</code> over 750 years ago? I have grouped these categories into five broad self-explanatory themes that can be seen below. Most Arabic technical terms have been left untranslated and are explained in the footnotes; numbers in italics indicate the congruous chapters in al-Ḥākim al-Naysābūrī's <code>al-Ma'rifa</code> fī 'ulūm al-hadīth.

I.	Grades of hadīth	Ibn al-Ṣalāḥ	al-Ḥākim
	A. al-ṣaḥīḥ (sound, authoritative) ¹⁵	(1)	(19)
	B. al-hasan (satisfactory)16	(2)	
	C. al - da $\tilde{i}f$ (weak, unauthoritative) ¹⁷	(3)	
II.	Types of hadīth according to isnād		
	A. al-musnad ¹⁸	(4)	

explores the meanings and variants of roughly twenty famous $had\bar{\imath}th$, there are some interesting theoretical discussions, such as the categories of $had\bar{\imath}th$ (pp. 77–83) and the distinction between storytellers ($qass\bar{a}s$) and $had\bar{\imath}th$ -transmitters (pp. 493–518), that shed light on the views of this influential scholar.

15 Ibn al-Ṣalāḥ provides the following succinct definition of the term ṣaḥāḥ: a ḥadīth with an unbroken isnād that ends at the Prophet in which all of the transmitters are reliable and precise and that is neither a unique transmission nor defective (al-ḥadīthu al-musnadu llādhī yattaṣilu isnāduhu bi-naqlī l-ʿadlī l-ḍābiṭi ʿan al-ʿadlī l-ḍābiṭi ilā muntahāhu wa lā yakūnu shādhdhan wa lā muʿallalan); Muqaddima Ibn al-Ṣalāḥ, 151. Ibn al-Ṣalāḥ states explicitly that the two most sound books after the Qurʾān are the Ṣahīṭhs of al-Bukhārī and Muslim, and argues emphatically that the sum of ṣaḥīṭh hadīth is not exhausted by the several thousand ḥadīth found within these two books but includes reports found in later works, such as al-Ḥākim al-Naysābūrī's Mustadrak; ibid. 160-4.

16 Ibn al-Şalāḥ struggles to harmonize the incomplete definitions of this type of hadīth proposed by al-Khattābī and al-Tirmidhī: a) a hadīth whose isnād is not free from men whose precise integrity is concealed (mastūr) and cannot be verified, although they are not know for serious lapses of memory, numerous errors, or receiving accusations of mendacity; b) a hadith that is neither unique (shādhdh wa munkar) nor defective (mu'allal), and whose isnād is complete with men of known integrity, but who are not at the level of the transmitters found in the authoritative books due to shortcomings of memory (hifz) and expertise (itqān); Muqaddima Ibn al-Şalāh, 175-6. Ibn al-Şalāh mentions that this term was employed most frequently by al-Tirmidhī in his Sunan, and also endeavors to solve this compiler's use of the problematic term hasan sahīh with the explanation that al-Tirmidhī probably knew of two isnāds for hadīth which receive this evaluation, one of which was hasan, and the other of which was sahīh. He also reports an anonymous opinion that the term hasan in these cases is not a technical term but merely means "that to which the soul inclines and the heart does not disdain;" mā tamīlu ilayhi l-nafsu wa lā ya'bāhu l-galbu: ibid., 180 and 185.

17 Any hadīth that is neither saḥīḥ nor ḥasan; Muqaddima Ibn al-Ṣalāḥ, 188.

¹⁰ Ibn al-Şalāḥ's short commentary on Muslim's Şahīḥ has been published as Ṣiyā-nat Ṣaḥīḥ Muslim (Beirut, 1987).

Mugaddima Ibn al-Salāh, 52-62.

¹² This text is included in the lower half of 'Ā'isha 'Abd al-Raḥmān's edition of Muqaddima Ibn al-Salāh.

This book is mentioned by 'Ā'isha 'Abd al-Raḥmān (p. 62) and was abridged by al-Dhahabī in al-Mūqiza, a text we shall be examining in the next section of this chapter. Taqī al-Dīn Muḥammad b. 'Alī al-Manfalūṭī al-Mālikī wa l-Shāfi'ī, known as Ibn Daqīq al-ʿĪd, is considered by al-Dhahabī to be both a Shaykh al-Islām and a mujtahid; Tadhkira, IV, 181. His book was published in 1982 in Baghdad. It is divided into the following 9 chapters: 1) technical terms, 2) proper transmission techniques and etiquettes, 3) etiquettes of the transmitter, 4) etiquettes of writing hadīth, 5) knowledge of elevated (al-ʿālī) and denigrated (al-nāzil) hadīth (explained below), 6) more technical terms of hadīth transmission, 7) reliable transmitters (al-thiqāl), 8) unreliable transmitters (al-duʿafā'), 9) correct orthography (al-mukhtalif wal-mu'talif).

¹⁴ This book was published in 1984 in Cairo. Although the bulk of it (pp. 185-493)

¹⁸ An unbroken isnād that ends at the Prophet (marfū' and muttaṣil); for Ibn 'Abd al-Barr, it is any isnād that starts with the Prophet; for al-Khaṭīb, it is any unbroken isnād; Muqaddima Ibn al-Ṣalāḥ, 190.

	B. al-muttasil ¹⁹	(5)	
	C. al-marf $\bar{u}^{c_{20}}$	(6)	
	D. al - $mawq\bar{u}f^{21}$	(7)	(5)
	E. al-maqtū ^c 22	(8)	(6)
	F. al-mursal ²³	(9)	(8)
	G. al-munqați ^{c24}	(10)	(9)
	H. al-mu'ḍal ²⁵	(11)	(12)
	I. al-tadlīs ²⁶	(12)	(26)
	J. al-isnād al- ^c ālī wa l-nāzil ²⁷	(29)	(1,2)
	K. al-musalsal ²⁸	(33)	(10)
III.	Types of hadith according to mat	n and/or isnād	
	A. al-shādhdh wa al-matr $\bar{u}k^{29}$	(13)	(28)
	B. al-munkar ³⁰	(14)	
	C. al-afrād/al-mufrad ³¹	(17)	(25)
	D. al-mu ^c allal ³²	(18)	(27)
		•	

¹⁹ An isnād in which every transmitter could have heard the text (matn) from the previous one.

²⁶ Two types: 1) the act of transmitting a hadīth from a contempory from whom one did not actually hear the report; 2) the use of an obscure name in order to camouflage the presence of an unreliable transmitter in the isnād.

E. al - $mudtarib^{33}$	(19)	
F. al-mudraj ³⁴	(20)	(13)
G. al-mawdū' (fabricated hadīth)	(21)	` '
$H. \ al$ -maq $l\bar{u}b^{35}$	(22)	
I. al-mashhūr and al-mutawātir36	(30)	(23)
J. al-gharīb wa l-'azīz ³⁷	(31)	(24)
K. gharīb al-alfā z^{38}	(32)	(22)
IV. Arts and techniques of hadīth transmission		
A. Isnād examination	(15)	
B. Recognition of textual additions to a	. ,	
hadīth made by trustworthy		
transmitters	(16)	(16)
C. Ḥadīth-transmitter criticism	(23)	(18)

³³ The weaker of two variants of the same hadith.

²⁰ An isnād that ends at the Prophet Muḥammad.

²¹ An $isn\bar{a}d$ that ends at a $sah\bar{a}b\bar{t}$ and whose matn does not include a Prophetic act or locution.

²² An isnād that ends at a tābitī and reports his or her act or locution.

²³ An *isnād* that ends at the Prophet and lacks a *sahābī*.

²⁴ An *isnād* in which any two adjacent transmitters could not possibly have met; an *isnād* with a lacuna.

²⁵ An *isnād* with a lacuna of two or more generations between transmitters.

²⁷ Five types of al-ʿālī: 1) isnād with the lowest number of transmitters; 2) isnād containing an imām of ḥadīth; 3) presence of a transmission (riwāya) in one of the "Five Books" (al-Bukhārī, Muslim, Abū Dāwūd, al-Tirmidhī, al-Nasā'ī); 4) isnād with the longest-lived member of a particular generation of transmitters; 5) isnād with the earliest date among contemporaries of transmission from a teacher. The ḥadīth al-nāzil is considered to be the opposite of each of these five categories; Muqaddima Ibn al-Salāht, 437-49.

²⁸ An isnād with a feature common to all transmitters; for example, all of the transmitters are Kufans.

²⁹ A unique transmission from a reliable transmitter; Ibn al-Ṣalāḥ divides this topic into four categories: 1) If it is unique and contradicts the reports from better transmitters, it is rejected; 2) if it is not contradicted and the transmitter is reliable, it might be saḥūḥ; 3) if it is not contradicted and the transmitter is mediocre, it is hasan; 4) if the transmitter is unacceptable (munkar), it is rejected; Muqaddima Ibn al-Ṣalāḥ, 237-43.

³⁰ A transmission with a unique matn; same four categories as shādhdh (#13).

³¹ A unique transmission from the perspective of all transmitters (*shādhdh* or *munkar*) or just those of a certain region

³² Any defect in a hadīth, whether the isnād or matn.

³⁴ Erroneous inclusion or confusion of words or names; three types 1) explanatory word by a later transmitter is included in the locution of the Prophet; 2) two matns, each having its own isnād, are transmitted with only one isnād; 3) a hadīth heard from different groups with variants is transmitted as if there was consensus upon its wording or isnād; Mugaddima Ibn al-Salāh, 274-78.

inportant statements concerning this category: 1) The main of a hadīth might be sahīh even if the isnād is weak; 2) It is permissible, according to the ahl al-hadīth, to be less stringent with isnāds for hadīth that do not concern the attributes of God and divine Law (sifāt Allāh toʿālā wa aḥkām al-sharī'a min al-halāl wa l-ḥarām); 3) If one quotes a weak ḥadīth, one must say something to the effect that "it was reported on the authority of the Messenger of God \(\mathbb{R}\)" (ruwiya 'an rasūl Allāh \(\mathbb{R}\)) rather than "the Messenger of God said" (qāla rasūl Allāh); Muqaddima Ibn al-Ṣalāḥ, 286-7.

³⁶ Mashhūr is a term employed only by the hadīth transmitters that refers to multiple transmissions of the same matn. Mutawātir is a term used by the jurists that refers to a matn for which multiple transmitters at each stage of the isnād exist. Since most hadīth trace back through only one or two sahāba or tābirūn, the challenge is to find those hadīth which, for example, twenty or more sahāba transmitted. The fact that very few hadīth fulfill this rigorous stipulation has led Wael Hallaq recently to the conclusion that most Muslim experts of legal theory (uṣūl al-fiqh) allowed for the possibility that the vast majority of the hadīth were not authentic centuries prior to the arguments of Orientalists such as Goldziher and Schacht. Hallaq's argument is convincing from the perspective of the legal theorists, but, given the situation that few legal theorists are recorded as being experts of hadīth criticism, it seems as though he may have fallen in the same trap as Schacht, namely making vast generalizations about the hadīth on the basis of literature external to the scholarly tradition of the hadīth scholars; see Wael Hallaq, "The Authenticity of Prophetic Hadīth: a Pseudo-problem," Studia Islamica, 89 (1999), 75-90.

³⁷ If a hadīth has a unique math or isnād from a famous transmitter, it is gharīb; if there are two or three versions of it, it is 'azīz; otherwise it is mashhūr. Ibn al-Ṣalāḥ warns that the majority of gharīb hadīth are not authoritative (ghayr sahīh) and quotes Ibn Ḥanbal as urging students not to write them down for this reason; Muqaddima Ibn al-Ṣalāḥ, 456.

³⁸ The presence of an obscure word in the matn of a hadith.

	D. Proper method for hadīth acquisition E. Writing hadīth F. Correct transmission (riwāya) G. Etiquettes of the hadīth-transmitter H. Etiquettes of the student I. Abrogation J. Orthography (taṣhīf) K. Differences (mukhtalif) between hadīth L. Erroneous additions to isnāds M. Hidden marāsīl	(24) (25) (26) (27) (28) (34) (35) (36) (37) (38)	(21) (34-35) (30)
V.	Isnād Criticism ('ilm al-rijāl)		
	A. Classes of Transmitters		
	1) al-ṣaḥāba (singular: ṣaḥābī) ³⁹	(39)	(7)
	2) al - $t\bar{a}bi$ $\bar{c}un$ (singular: $t\bar{a}bi$ $\bar{c}i$) $^{+0}$	(40)	(14)
	3) al -thi $q\bar{a}t$ and al - du $af\bar{a}$	(61)	
	4) al-thiqāt who made errors in		
	old age	(62)	
	5) tabaqāt of scholars ⁴²	(63)	
	B. Types of Transmission		
	1) Transmission of senior transmitters	(4.1)	
	from their juniors	(41)	
	2) Transmission from scholars of the	(40)	
	same generation	(42)	
	3) Brothers and sisters who are	(40)	(2.0)
	hadīth transmitters	(43)	(36)
	4) Transmission from sons to their fathers	(4.4)	
	5) Transmission from fathers to their	(44)	
	,	(45)	
	sons 6) Two scholars whose death	(45)	
	dates are distant who transmit		
	hadith from the same teacher ¹³	(46)	
	7) Transmitters from whom only	(10)	
	one student transmitted <i>hadīth</i>	(47)	(37)
	one stadent transmitted hutter	(17)	(37)

³⁹ Any Muslim who saw the Prophet Muḥammad; often translated as "Companions." ⁴⁰ Any Muslim who saw or heard from a $sah\bar{a}b\bar{t}$; often translated as "Successors." ⁴¹ Reliable and unreliable (literally "weak") transmitters. ⁴² Classes or generations of people, depending on the context. This topic is dis-

C. Disciplines of Names		
1) Transmitters who are known by		
multiple names	(48)	(<i>40</i>)
2) Unique names, kunyas (agnates),	(10)	(10)
and honorifics	(49)	
3) Names and their kunyas	(50)	(41)
4) Kunyas of those who are known	(00)	(TI)
by names	(51)	
5) Honorifics of hadīth transmitters	(52)	(45)
6) Consensus and disagreement	(02)	(13)
over names, kunyas and honorifics		
(al-mu'talif wa l-mukhtalif)	(53)	
7) Consensus and disagreement over	(00)	
names and lineages (ansāb)	(54)	(39)
8) Mutashābih (combination of 6	()	(55)
and 7)	(55)	(47)
9) Bearers of the same name and	(- /	(17)
lineage (nasab)	(56)	
10) Those whose nasab is not their	` /	
father's name	(57)	
11) Deceptive lineages	(58)	
12) Unclear male and female	` /	
transmitters	(59)	
13) Mawālī and those affiliated with	` '	
a tribe	(64)	(38, 43)
D. Time and Space	` '	(3 /
 Important birth and death dates 		
and travels of transmitters	(60)	(44)
2) Origins of transmitters and their	` /	()
places of residence	(65)	(42)
Durpose of this excursus through all sint.		

The purpose of this excursus through all sixty-five disciplines of hadath is to demonstrate the fundamental roles of hadīth-transmitter criticism and the broader categories of isnād criticism ('ilm al-rijāl) in the tradition of Sunnī hadīth scholarship. Twenty-six of the categories

cussed thoroughly in the next section of this chapter.

⁴³ Ibn al-Ṣalāḥ explains that this discipline is useful for identifying elevated isnāds

and gives the example of Mālik b. Anas, from whom both al-Zuhrī and Zakariyyā b. Durayd al-Kindī transmitted hadīth. These latter two men died at least 137 year apart from one another; Muqaddima Ibn al-Şalāh, 550-1. Ibn al-Şalāh reports that al-Khaṭīb al-Baghdādī has an entire book devoted to this topic titled Kītāb al-sābiq wa l-lāḥiq.

consist of pure biographical information of transmitters, ranging from the type of knowledge that Aḥmad b. Ḥanbal is actually the grandson of Ḥanbal and the son of Muḥammad b. Ḥanbal (category 57), to the knowledge of the contemporaries of each individual scholar (#63). All twenty-two disciplines of the "Types of hadīth according to isnād" and "Types of hadīth according to math and/or isnād" require a high degree of familiarity with the qualities and lives of hundreds, if not thousands, of hadīth-transmitters. It is not possible to answer even the most basic question—is this hadīth authoritative (sahīḥ)?—without substantial prosopographical knowledge. While the intellectual and cultural significance of the isnād and knowledge of the names found within it has been acknowledged by several astute scholars, such as Tarif Khalidi, an enormous amount of research remains to be done into the lives and reputations of a significant number of hadīth transmitters of the formative period of Islam. It

A few of these categories merit closer examination because of their role in shaping the topics of investigation in this book. Ibn al-Ṣalāḥ identifies whom he deems to be the masters of the tradition of hadāth scholarship and even outlines a curriculum for the aspiring student of hadāth in his Muqaddima. Category 60, "Important birth and death dates of transmitters," includes the names and dates of the Prophet Muḥammad, the ten ṣaḥāba promised paradise, two ṣaḥāba who lived both prior to and after the advent of Islam, to founders of

legal schools (madhāhib),⁴⁸ the compilers of the five 'canonical' hadāth books,⁴⁹ and seven later scholars who produced useful books concerning hadāth.⁵⁰ This last group of men is particularly interesting because it covers the first two-thirds of the three-hundred year gap between the last of the five 'canonical' compilers, namely al-Nasā'ī (d. 303/915), and Ibn al-Ṣalāḥ, and, at the same time, raises the question as to what took place during the century prior to the birth of the author of the Muqaddima.

The reading list for the aspiring student of hadīth described by Ibn al-Ṣalāḥ in category 28 confirms the importance of the genre of books devoted to the study of hadīth-transmitters that I study in the second half of this book. This list suggests that the student should begin with the five 'canonical' hadīth collections prior to advancing to the musnad works, such as the Musnad of Ibn Ḥanbal, and books that contain a mixture of hadīth and reports of the ṣahāba and tābi'ān, such as the Muwaṭṭa' of Mālik b. Anas. The next stage of pedagogy involves works that uncover defects ('ilal') in hadīth, and the works of Ibn Ḥanbal and al-Dāraquṭnī are explicitly mentioned. Ibn al-Ṣalāḥ then urges the student of hadīth to study the histories of hadīth-transmitters in general, and al-Tārīkh al-kabīr of al-Bukhārī and al-Jarḥ wa l-ta'dīl of Ibn Abī Ḥātim in particular. The final category of books that merits attention is the one concerned with accurate orthography of names, such as the Ikmāl of Abū Naṣr Ibn Mākūlā. This list not

[&]quot;The greatest skill that, in Mamlūk times at least, distinguished a 'master hadūth scholar' (muhaddith) from a 'jurist hadūth scholar' (muhaddith al-fuqahā') was the ability to identify the 'elevated' isnād (al-'ālī; category 29) of any particular matn that had multiple chains of transmission. This skill was entirely dependent upon an exhaustive knowledge of the relative qualities and reputations of hundreds of hadūth transmitters. That this skill was not considered by everyone to be necessary in order to achieve the rank of 'master hadūth scholar' can be seen in al-Suyūṭī's defense of Ibn Kathīr, whom Ibn Hajar criticized as being merely a 'jurist hadūth scholar' because he lacked the skill to identify the 'elevated' isnāds. Al-Suyūṭī claims that this skill is not a prerequisite for the attainment of the title of muhaddith; see his Dhayl included in the 1998 edition al-Dhahabī's Tadhkirat al-huffāz, V, 238-9.

¹⁵ Khalidi discusses the cultural impact of the *isnād* in the context of his description as to how the Islamic historical tradition grew out of the tradition of *ḥadāth* compilation. He declares the *isnād* to be "a unique product of Islamic culture" and suggests that its natural growth served as a catalyst for the compilation of books; Khalidi, *Arabic Historical Thought*, 17–28.

¹⁶ Abū Bakr al-Şiddīq, 'Umar b. al-Khaṭṭāb, 'Uthmān b. 'Affān, 'Alī b. Abī Tālib, Talha b. 'Ubayd Allāh (d. 36/656), al-Zubayr b. al-'Awwām (d. 36/656), Sa'd b. Abī Waqqāṣ (d. 55/675), Sa'id b. Zayd (d. 50-1/670-1), 'Abd al-Raḥmān b. 'Awf (d. 32/652-3), Abū 'Ubayda b. al-Iarrāh (d. 18/640).

⁴⁷ Hākim b. Ḥizām (d. 54/674) and Ḥassān b. Thābit (d. 54/674).

⁴⁸ Sufyān al-Thawrī (d. 161/778), Mālik b. Anas (d. 179/795), Abū Ḥanīfa (d. 150/767), al-Shāfi'ī (d. 204/820), Ibn Ḥanbal (d. 241/855).

⁴⁹ Ibn al-Ṣalāḥ does not consider the *Sunan* of Ibn Māja to be of the same caliber of the other five 'canonical' books mentioned in the previous chapter (note 35). The expression "the six books" (al-kutub al-sitta) does not appear to have gained widespread currency until the century after his death.

⁵⁰ Abū Bakr Alimad b. 'Alī al-Dāraqutnī (306-385/918-995), Abū 'Abdullāh al-Ḥākim al-Naysābūrī (321-405/933-1014), 'Abd al-Ghanī b. Sa'īd al-Miṣrī (332-409/ 944-1018), Abū Nu'aym Aḥmad b. 'Abdullāh al-Iṣbahānī (334-430/946-1039), Abū 'Umar Yūsuf b. 'Abd al-Barr al-Namarī (368-463/979-1071), Abū Bakr Aḥmad b. al-Ḥusayn al-Bayhaqī (384-458/994-1066), and Abū Bakr Aḥmad b. 'Alī al-Khaṭīb al-Baghdādī (391-463/1001-1071).

This list is derived from Mugaddima Ibn al-Ṣalāh, 432-3.

⁵² Various recensions of the 'ilal works of Ibn Ḥanbal have been published in the past decade and can be found in the bibliography. The previously mentioned encyclopedia of his opinions appears to be a useful alternative to these cumbersome and chaotic 'ilal books. The 'ilal book of al-Dāraquṭnī was published by Dār Ṭaybah in Riyadh in 1984 under the title of al-'Ilal al-wārida fī l-aḥādīth al-Nabawiyya. See also Fuat Sezgin, GAS, I, 207.

There is much uncertainty concerning Ibn Mākūlā's death date; the numbers range from 475/1082-3 to 486/1092-3.

only emphasizes the obligation of the student of <code>hadīth</code> to devote serious study to the biographies of thousands of <code>hadīth</code> transmitters, but also reaffirms the value of several third/ninth and fourth/tenth century books for this task.

Another discipline of critical importance for the understanding of how the Sunnīs articulated their vision of Islam is the knowledge of the saḥāba.⁵⁴ Ibn al-Ṣalāḥ divides this category into the following seven sub-topics:

- 1) Who is a saḥābī?
- 2) The universal probity ('adāla) of the saḥāba;
- 3) The saḥāba with the greatest number of transmissions;
- 4) The number of saḥāba who transmitted ḥadīth;
- 5) Rankings of the saḥāba according to excellence;
- 6) Who was the first saḥābī to embrace Islam?
- 7) The last saḥābī to die in each of the major cities.

Ibn al-Ṣalāḥ identifies Abū Hurayra as the saḥābī with the largest amount of ḥadīth transmissions and quotes Ibn Ḥanbal's identification of six ṣaḥāba who excelled quantitatively in ḥadīth transmission and lived to a ripe old age. Three other early Iraqi opinions are also cited on this topic. The first is the Basran 'Alī b. al-Madīnī (d. 234/849), who praises the juridical contributions (fiqh) of Ibn Mas'ūd, Zayd b. Thābit, and Ibn 'Abbās. The Kufan tābi'ī Masrūq b. al-Ajda' (d. 63/683) identifies six great ṣaḥāba⁵⁷ and then reduces this list to just 'Alī b. Abī Ṭālib and Ibn Mas'ūd. Finally, the Kufan tābi'ī al-Sha'bī (d. after 100/718) lists two groups of three ṣaḥāba each as the sources of religious knowledge ('ilm). These reports offer

54 Category 39, Muqaddima Ibn al-Ṣalāh, 485-505.

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shreds of evidence of a core of what can be called 'primary saḥāba' whose identities are further explored in chapter six of this book.

The fifth sub-topic of category 39 shatters any illusion that the saḥāba are all qualitatively equal. The Muqaddima declares that Abū Bakr is unequivocally the greatest (afḍal) saḥābī, and 'Umar b. al-Khaṭṭāb is the second greatest. The fact that master hadīth scholars, such as Sufyān al-Thawrī (d. 161/778) and Ibn Khuzayma (d. 311/923), believed that 'Alī was superior to 'Uthmān forces Ibn al-Ṣalāḥ to acknowledge that it is possible to hold this opinion despite the unanimous opinion of the madhāhib of 'companions of hadīth' (asḥāb al-ḥadīth) and 'people of the sunna' (ahl al-sunna) that 'Uthmān was superior to 'Alī. Ibn al-Ṣalāḥ attempts to mitigate these polemical rankings by closing the sub-topic with 'Abd al-Qāhir al-Baghdādī's (d. 429/1037) five-class structure of descending excellence:

- 1) The first four caliphs
- 2) The six remaining saḥāba promised paradise⁶³
- 3) Those who fought at the Battle of Badr (2/624)
- 4) Those who fought at the battle of Uhud (3/625)
- 5) Those who gave the oath of allegiance to the Prophet at Huday-biyya (6/628)⁶⁴

What is clear from these two sub-topics is that the classification and ranking of the $sah\bar{a}ba$ is a critical element of Sunnism and merits the rigorous examination it receives in chapter six of this study.

they transcend the usual divisions of geography, and they indicate the unique diversity of teachings from the $sah\bar{a}ba$ in Kufa.

This opinion can be found in eleven of the twelve Sunnī creeds translated and collated by Montgomery Watt in *Islamic Creeds: A Selection* (Edinburgh, 1994), 32, 33, 38, 44, 55, 58, 65, 72, 79, 84, 88.

His name is Abū Bakr Muhammad b. Ishāq b. Khuzayma al-Naysābūrī. Al-Dhahabī praises him as 'Shaykh al-Islam' in *Tadhkirat al-huffāz* (II, 207). Ibn al-Şalāḥ states that Sufyān al-Thawrī adopted the belief that 'Ūthmān was superior to 'Alī at the end of his life; *Muqaddima Ibn al-Ṣalāḥ*, 495.

62 The belief that 'Alī is superior to 'Uthmān is called tashayyu' and is discussed in detail in chapter VII.6. The two examples of adherents to this belief mentioned are explicitly articulated in the Muqaddima, and Ibn al-Şalāḥ also observes that this is the common opinion of the ahl al-sunna of Kufa; Muqaddima Ibn al-Ṣalāḥ, 495.

63 See above, footnote 46, for a list of these ten men. Ibn Ḥanbal opens his Musnād with the transmissions of each of these men.

⁶⁴ This event is called bay'at al-ridwān and is mentioned in the Qur'ān in Sūrat al-Fath (48):10, 18. Presumably there is a sixth class, as the majority of saḥāba, including Abū Hurayra, embraced Islam after Ḥudaybiyya and prior to the Prophet's death in 11/632.

³⁵ These six saḥāba are Abū Hurayra, Ibn 'Umar, 'Ā'isha, Jābir b. 'Abdullāh, Ibn 'Abbās, and Anas b. Mālik.

⁵⁶ Ibn Sa'd, al-Tabaqāt al-kubrā, VI, 398; al-Dhahabī, Tadhkira, I, 40.

⁵⁷ 'Umar, 'Alī, Ubayy, Zayd b. Thābit, Abū l-Dardā', Ibn Mas'ūd.
⁵⁸ His name is 'Āmir b. Sharāhīl al-Hamdānī; al-Tabagāt al-kubrā, VI, 479 and Tadhkira, I, 63. Neither Ibn Sa'd nor al-Dhahabī give his death date. Ibn Qutayba puts it at 105 or 4, whereas Ibn Hajar merely says he died after 100; see Ibn Qutayba, al-Ma'ārif, ed. Tharwa 'Akāsha (Cairo, 1960), 449 and Ibn Hajar, Tagrīb,

⁵⁹ The first group consists of 'Umar, Ibn Mas'ūd, and Zayd b. Thābit and the latter of 'Alī, Abū Mūsā l-Ash'arī, and Ubayy b. Ka'b. Al-Sha'bī states that "the knowledge of some of them [in each group] resembles that of others, and they shared knowledge freely from among themselves" (yushbihu 'ilmu ba'dihim ba'dan, wa kāna yaqtabisu ba'duhum min ba'din). These groupings are particularly interesting because

The final hadīth discipline of crucial significance for this project is the one pertaining to hadīth criticism titled "the knowledge of the attribute of one whose transmission is accepted and one whose transmission is rejected, as well as that which is affiliated with this topic pertaining to censure, unreliability, reliability, and authority." This is one of the longest chapters in the Muqaddima, and Ibn al-Ṣalāḥ divides it into fifteen sub-topics:

- 1) Probity of the transmitter ('adālat al-rāwī)
- 2) Techniques for establishing the probity of a transmitter
- 3) Necessity of evidence for a transmitter to be classified as unreliable
- 4) Number of negative ratings necessary to be classified as unreliable
- 5) Precedence of ranking of the status of 'unreliable' to that of 'reliable'
- 6) Insufficiency of the expression haddathanī al-thiqatu if the thiqa is not named in the isnād
- 7) Transmission of a known, reliable transmitter does not necessarily mean that the other names in the *isnād* are also reliable
- 8) Unknown transmitters (majhūl)
- 9) Transmitters affiliated with innovative sectarianism (mubtadi^c)
- 10) Acceptance of the repentance of one who falsifies religion (kadhib)⁶⁶ unless it was related to hadīth
- 11) If a transmitter forgets what he has transmitted at a later date, the *hadīth* is still authoritative if his students pass it on
- 12) The rejection of the transmission of any scholar who accepts compensation (ajr) in exchange for transmitting hadīth⁶⁷
- 13) Unacceptability of the reports of scholars who are lenient (tasāhul) in transmission (samā') and who transmit many odd (shawādhdh) and suspect (manākār) ḥadāth

14) The 'modern' conditions for the acceptance of hadith transmission⁶⁸

15) Technical terms of hadīth criticism 69

The foundation of this entire pyramid of sub-topics pertaining to the verification of the reliability of hadīth transmitters is the testimony of a core of master critics whose own probity is unassailable.70 Ibn al-Salāh cites eleven examples of these master scholars on the authority of al-Khaṭīb al-Baghdādī, but does not give any indication as to their total number.71 The opinions of these scholars carry an extraordinary amount of weight, for if one of them evaluates a transmitter as 'unreliable,' this rating must be considered for eternity (subtopics 4 and 5), and if none of them knows a transmitter, all of the hadīth in which his name appears in the isnād become weak (subtopic 8). This category reinforces the argument of the centrality of both hadith criticism in the entire conceptual scheme of the hadith disciplines, and indicates the sublime influence of a small group of impeccable master critics, whose critical opinions have been permanently etched into the Sunnī tradition of hadīth transmission. Perhaps this is why Tarif Khalidi observed that "one of the most urgent tasks for researchers in this field is the exhaustive examination of the rise and development of the critical methodologies employed by the hadith scholars themselves."72

The goal of this section has been to establish a conceptual framework for the study of hadīth compilation and criticism. The Muqaddima

⁶⁵ Category 23: ma'rifatu şifati man tuqbalu riwāyatuhu wa man turaddu riwāyatuhu wa mā yata'allaqu bi-dhālika min qadhin wa jarhin wa tawthīqin wa ta'dīlin; Muqaddima Ibn al-Salāh, 288-311.

The word *kadhib* literally means "lie" and is used extensively in both the Qur'ān and *hadīth* literature in the sense of the deliberate denial and falsification of the divine truth. The classical literature on this topic is vast, and several of the scholars whose opinions are studied in chapter 4 discuss it in detail.

⁶⁷ Ibn al-Ṣalāḥ reports that this is the classical opinion of the Imāms of hadīth, but that Abū Isḥāq al-Shīrāzī (whose Tabaqāt al-fuqahā' was mentioned in the introduction) issued a fatwā that contradicts this opinion in the case of the scholar who teaches hadīth in order to support his family; Muqaddima Ibn al-Ṣalāḥ, 305–6.

field of hadīth transmission from the days of the earlier authorities, as the sole responsibility for the 'modern' scholar of hadīth is to find a reliable, upright teacher and become the next link in the isnād of the book that he is teaching. The reason for this is that "all authoritative and semi-authoritative hadīth have been collected and written in the books that the Imāms of hadīth compiled. It is not possible that anything has escaped all of them, although it is possible that it has escaped some of them... Anyone who brings forth a hadīth not found in any of them will not have it accepted." (wa wajhu dhālika anna l-aḥādītha llatī qad saḥḥat aw waqafat bayna l-ṣiḥḥati wa l-saqami qad duwwinat wa kutibat fī l-jawāmši llatī jama'ahā a'immatu l-ḥadīth wa lā yajūzu an yadhhaba shay'un minhā 'alā jamī'ihim wa in jāza an yadhhaba 'alā ba'dihim... fa-man jā'a l-yawma bi-ḥadīthin lā yūjadu 'inda jamī'ihim lam yuqbal minhu; Muqaddima Ibn al-Salāh, 307).

This category is explored at great length in chapter seven.

Literally, "overflowing" (istifada).

⁷¹ These eleven men are Mālik b. Anas, Shu'ba b. al-Ḥajjāj, Sufyān al-Thawrī, Sufyān b. 'Uyayna, al-Awzā'ī, al-Layth b. Sa'd, Ibn al-Mubārak, Wakī' b. al-Jarrāḥ, Ibn Ḥanbal, Ibn Ma'īn, and 'Alī b. al-Madīnī; *Muqaddima Ibn al-Ṣalāḥ*, 289. All of these critics will be encountered in chapter four; see below, Table 4.3.

⁷² Khalidi, *Arabic Historical Thought*, 27.

of Ibn al-Salāh is a useful tool for this task because it is the most authoritative articulation of the hadīth disciplines in the Sunnī tradition. The importance of isnād criticism is graphically illustrated by the fact that only five of the sixty-five topics do not rely in some measure upon a high degree of prosopographical proficiency.73 The elevated status of a small group of master hadīth scholars can be ascertained from the curriculum cited in category 28 and the eleven Imāms listed in category 23.1. The radical Sunnī assertion of the unquestionable probity of all sahāba is clearly promoted in the Mugaddima, although it is tempered significantly by the identification of certain men (and one woman) of distinction in the fields of hadīth transmission, religious knowledge, and general excellence. This brief overview of the Mugaddima of Ibn al-Salāh clearly demonstrates the importance of the identification of the master hadīth critics, a reclassification of the sahāba on the basis of their individual contributions to hadīth transmission, and a thorough examination of the critical techniques employed by some of the earliest critics in order for one to understand the development of the Sunnī hadīth literature.⁷⁴

II.3 Towards a historical framework: The identification of al-Dhahabī's favorite ḥadīth scholars

The task of this section is to select the appropriate books from Shams al-Dīn al-Dhahabī's (d. 748/1348) vast corpus for the purpose of ascertaining the identities of the hadīth scholars whom he most admired. Al-Dhahabī's mastery of the two primary historiographical techniques in the Islamic tradition—tārīkh (annale) and tabaqa (generation)—and his preference of the latter in his works devoted exclusively to religious scholars is significant and calls for a brief examination into the nature of tabaqāt works in general. The identification of al-Dhahabī's favorite hadīth scholars is a necessary first step towards the articulation of an original seven-phase historical essay of the first seven centuries of Sunnī hadīth scholarship that is the subject of the next chapter.

Shams al-Dīn Abū 'Abdullāh Muhammad b. Ahmad b. 'Uthmān al-Dhahabī was the youngest member of a group of four Syrian scholars whose teachings and compositions left an indelible stamp on the Islamic intellectual tradition.75 Ibn Taymiyya (d. 728/1328) is the senior and by far the most famous member of this illustrious clique, and his fierce championing of the salafi approach to Islamic law and theology was viewed with serious consternation by the Shāfi'ī-Ash arī religio-political elite of the Mamlūk empire. The salafī approach advocated by Ibn Taymiyya sought to break the near monopoly of the four officially sanctioned legal madhāhib and one theological madhhab (Ash'arism) of Sunnism by means of a careful reconstruction of law and theology on the sole basis of the Qur'an, sound hadīth, and the opinions of the 'pious ancestors' (salaf) of the first three centuries of Islam.77 It also maintained a vigorous polemic against philosophy, Shī'sism, and radical mysticism. The painstaking scholarship of the third of these four scholars, Abū l-Ḥajjāj Yūsuf b. 'Abd al-Raḥmān al-Mizzī (d. 742/1341), greatly facilitated this task and set a standard in the field of isnād criticism that remains unsurpassed to this day.78 Abū Muḥammad al-Qāsim b. al-Bahā'

⁷³ These five topics are #24-28 and are concerned with the practical technique for the 'modern day' transmission of hadith from the classical books.

⁷⁴ These topics are discussed below in chapters 4-8, respectively.

⁷⁵ The two main biographies consulted for al-Dhahabī's life are 'Abd al-Sattār al-Shaykh, al-Ḥāfiz al-Dhahabī and the introduction by Bashshār Ma'rūf to Siyar a'lām al-nubalā', I, 13–44 in particular. The EI2 article "al-Dhahabī" by Moh. Ben Cheneb and J. de Somogyi (II, 214–6) is particularly outdated with regard to al-Dhahabī's publications. It is somewhat surprising that Tarif Khalidi does not even mention al-Dhahabī in Arabic Historical Thought, and I am unaware of any monographs on al-Dhahabī in European languages.

This event is discussed in some detail by Sherman Jackson, who has translated Ibn Taymiyya's own account of his trials in "Ibn Taymiyyah on Trial in Damascus," *Journal of Semitic Studies*, XXXIX/1 (1994), 41-85. Fazlur Rahman writes with a tone of reverence and admiration for Ibn Taymiyya and his program of "Islamic positivism;" see *Revival and Reform*, 132-65.

One of the best examples of al-Dhahabī's salafī mentality can be found in his entry on al-Ghazālī in Siyar a'lām al-nubalā': "Do you know what useful knowledge is? It is what was sent down in the Qur'ān and explained by the Messenger in speech and deed, and what he did not prohibit. [The Messenger] said: Whoever dislikes my practices, is not with me' (man raghiba 'an sunnatī fa-laysa minnī). I urge you, my brother, to study carefully the Book of God, and partake of extensive reading of the two Ṣahīhs (of al-Bukhārī and Muslim), the Sunan of al-Nasā'ī, Riyād [al-sāliḥīn] of al-Nawawī and his book al-Adhkār. [If you do this,] you will prosper and succeed;" Siyar, XIX, 340. Al-Dhahabī follows this advice with a strong warning to shun the "worshippers of philosophy" ('ubbād al-falāsīfa) and the practices of extreme Ṣūfīs (ahl al-riyādāt and ashāb al-khalawāt).

⁷⁸ Al-Mizzī's two most famous works are the *Tahdhīb al-kamāl* and *al-Aṭrāf*. The former is a massive expansion and thorough reworking of 'Abd al-Ghanī al-Maqdisī's (d. 600/1204) biographical dictionary *al-Kamāl* that was intended to contain biographies

Muḥammad al-Birzālī (d. 739/1338), the fourth of this quartet of Damascene scholars, was renowned for his massive encyclopedia (muʿjam) of ḥadīth he heard from over three thousand teachers. Al-Dhahabī appears to have been less politically vocal than his masters Ibn Taymiyya and al-Mizzī, both of whom were imprisoned at various times for their salafī beliefs, but he did forfeit a high post at the prestigious Ashrafiyya madrasa because of his uncompromising refusal to profess the Ashʿarī creed in public. 80

It is most likely due to the influence of these three proponents of salafī Sunnnism that al-Dhahabī directed his talents toward the fields of hadīth criticism, history, and Qur'ānic recitation. Al-Dhahabī's family included a few minor scholars, and his father achieved a degree of prosperity as a goldsmith in Damascus. His early studies were in the 'seven readings' of the Qur'an, and his first academic post involved teaching this subject at the Umayyad mosque in 693/1294. The unstable political climate brought on by the Ilkhānids and other Turco-Mongol armies caused al-Dhahabī's father to prohibit him from the customary 'travel for the acquisition of knowledge' (al-rihla fi talab al-'ilm) of every aspiring scholar, although he was allowed short trips to Balabakk in 693/1294 and Cairo (probably in 695/1295). Al-Dhahabī does not appear to have been particularly eager to travel even after his father passed away in 698/1299, although he did take the opportunity to study with several scholars in the Hijāz after his performance of the pilgrimage to Mecca that same year.81

Al-Dhahabī's first regular job seems to have been as the *khaṭīb* in a small village outside of Damascus, and it was during this time (703–29/1304–29) that he wrote many of the books that established his reputation. He accepted a position at the *dār al-ḥadīth* section of the Zāhiriyya *madrasa* in Damascus in 729/1329, and succeeded his teacher al-Birzālī's post at the Nafīsa *madrasa* when al-Birzālī passed

away a decade later. This same year witnessed al-Dhahabī's additional appointment to the newly constructed *madrasa* al-Tankaziyya. Despite his loss of eyesight around 741/1340-1 or 744/1343, al-Dhahabī continued to teach at five schools until his death in 748/1348.

Three of the 128 books described by 'Abd al-Sattār al-Shaykh elevated al-Dhahabī's status to the highest pinacles of Muslim scholarship. The earliest of these was an enormous history of the first seven centuries of Islam, titled $T\bar{a}r\bar{t}kh$ al-Islam, the 'first draft' of which was composed in 714/1314. This work remains one of the most ambitious histories of the entire world of Islam, and contains both biographical notices for tens of thousands of religious and secular notables, as well as reports of historical events. The book is arranged in tabaqāt of ten years each, a period of time that is too short to be considered a "generation;" this observation has led both Bashshār 'Awwād and 'Abd al-Sattār al-Shaykh to classify the $T\bar{a}r\bar{t}kh$ among Dhahabī's annalistic works.⁸²

The second exceptional composition by al-Dhahabī is $M\bar{\imath}z\bar{a}n$ al-i'tidāl fi naqd al-rijāl, an encyclopedia of over eleven thousand tarnished hadīth-transmitters that he rather miraculously assembled in four months in 724/1324. Al-Dhahabī explains in the introduction that he has followed the example of Ibn 'Adī (d. 365/976)83 and included everyone about whom anything negative was said, with the exception of the $sah\bar{a}ba$ and the Imāms of the $madh\bar{a}hib$, such as Abū Ḥanīfa and al-Shāfi'ī.84 He also provides the useful service of identifying twenty-three experts of hadīth-transmitter criticism and explaining his critical terminology in the introduction of the $M\bar{\imath}z\bar{a}n$. This encylopedia is arranged alphabetically, and therefore is not considered usually among al-Dhahabī's historical works, despite the inclusion of much material of relevance to this discipline.

Al-Dhahabī's final book of extraordinary magniture and erudition is the Siyar $a^cl\bar{a}m$ al-nubalā'. This work is far more than a mere abridgement of the gargantuan $T\bar{a}n\bar{k}h$, and is rather a unique effort to create a universal work of Islamic history on the basis of tabaqāt.

for every name found in the *isnāds* of the 'six canonical books.' Al-Mizzī states in his introduction that he added about 1700 entries to this original work, and he provides useful lists of teachers and pupils for each of the transmitters it contains. The *Alrāf* is a type of index to the 'six books' and lists all *isnāds* for each key phrase in the *matn* of a *ḥadīth* (the *!araf*).

Tadhkira, V, 235.

These three most important teachers of al-Dhahabī have been singled out in Siyar, I, 35 and al-Hāfiz al-Dhahabī, 85–7. See also E12, II, 214 for references to his unwillingness to sign the Ash'arī creed.

⁸¹ Siyar, I, 30.

³² Siyar, I, 103; al-Hāfiz al-Dhahabī, 450.

¹³ Compiler of the famous work al-Kāmil fī du'afā' al-njāl; this book is discussed below in chapter four.

¹¹⁴ Mīzān al-i'tidāl fī naqd al-rijāl, ed. 'Alī Muḥammad al-Bajāwī, I (Cairo, 1963), 2-3. This last category is particularly interesting, as several critics are somewhat harsh on Abū Ḥanīfa; this topic is discussed in more detail in chapter VIII.4.

It was probably first compiled in 715/1315 in the wake of $T\bar{a}n\bar{k}h$ al-Islām, and underwent revisions throughout the 730's.⁸⁵ Al-Dhahabī identifies 5925 notables, the majority of whom are hadīth transmitters, and incorporates much biographical material from his vast historical readings in many of the entries. The Siyar is possibly the largest book in the Muslim tradition arranged entirely according to tabaqāt, and can be interpreted as al-Dhahabī's boldest attempt to narrate the growth of the most influential men and women of Islamic civilization, generation by generation, from the period following the Prophet Muhammad to his own day.⁸⁶

Al-Dhahabī employed the *tabaqāt* structure in several of his important works concerned with Qur'ān reciters, theology ('aqīda), and hadīth transmission. His Ma'rīfat al-qurrā' al-kibār 'alā l-ṭabaqāt wa l-a'ṣār, composed in 717/1317, was one of the first works devoted exclusively to the history of the master reciters of the Qur'ān from the ṣaḥāba to his day. The book consists of 1266 entries⁸⁷ across eighteen ṭabaqāt and was incorporated in its entirety in Ibn al-Jazarī's (d. 833/1429) exhaustive biographical dictionary of Qur'ān reciters, Ghāyat al-nihāya.⁸⁸

Al-Dhahabī applied his vast knowledge of history and proficiency with the *tabaqa* periodization to support his unabashed *salafī* position regarding the attributes of God in the brief treatise *al-Uluww li-l-'aliyy al-ghaffār*. The 'correct' opinions of nearly 150 scholars from the *tābi'ūn* through the Andalusī Qur'ānic exegete Abū 'Abdullāh al-Qurṭubī (d. 671/1272) are arranged into a mere nine *tabaqāt*. The transcendental quality of the *salafī* movement is vivid in *al-'Uluww*, as it includes citations from the seven eponyms of the Sunnī legal *madhāhib*, Ja'far al-Ṣādiq (d. 148/765), half of the compilers of the

Al-Dhahabī states that the "most elevated isnād today, the year [7]35, passes through al-Hasan b. 'Arafa (d. 257/871);" Siyar, XI, 550.

⁸⁷ The first published edition has 734 entries, whereas the 1997 edition by Aḥmad Khān includes an additional 535 names. Most of these additions occur in the twelfth through sixteenth *tabaqāt*; see the introduction to *Tabaqāt al-quπā* (Riyad, 1997).

⁸⁹ Al-Dhahabī, al-'Uluwu li-l-'aliyy al-ghaffār (Riyadh, 1995).

'six canonical' hadīth books, both Abū l-Ḥasan al-Ash'arī and, more surprisingly, Abū Bakr al-Bāqillānī (d. 403/1012), as well as a chorus of master Arabic grammarians and linguists. This work confirms not just the polemical utility of the tabaqa structure, but also demonstrates its unlimited potential for rethinking the traditional understanding of historical development (or, in this case, continuity) within the Islamic tradition.

Three short treatises and one substantial history of *hadīth*-transmitters and critics arranged by *tabaqāt* can be found in the literary corpus of al-Dhahabī. The first of these is a list of 715 scholars "whose opinions are accepted in *hadīth*-transmitter criticism" that is arranged into twenty-two *tabaqāt*. ⁹⁰ The second treatise, *al-Mūqiza*, is a two-part list, the first of which extends from Abū Hurayra (d. 58/678) through Ibn al-Sharqī (d. 325/937) in nine *tabaqāt*, followed by fifteen *tabaqāt* from 'Ubayd Allāh b. 'Umar (d. 147/764) through Abū l-Fath Muḥammad b. Muḥammad (d. 734/1334), grandson of Ibn Sayyid al-Nās (d. 659/1261). ⁹¹ Each *tabaqa* in *al-Mūqiza* consists of nothing more than the names of one to four exemplary scholars of each generation, and it may be one of the last works written (or dictated) by al-Dhahabī. ⁹²

A far longer list of hadīth-transmitters arranged by tabaqāt is al-Mu'īn fī ṭabaqāt al-muhaddithīn. Al-Dhahabī warns in the succinct introduction of this book that it is not a comprehensive list of great hadīth

⁸⁶ It is unfortunate that volume XIV covering years 661–700 was not included in the published edition. However, the 23 volumes that have been published remain largely untapped in Western historical studies of Islamic civilization.

⁸⁸ Shams al-Dīn Abū l-Khayr Muḥammad b. Muḥammad al-Dimashqī al-Shāfi'ī, known as Ibn al-Jazarī, taught in Anatolia prior to his recruitment by Tīmūr, who made him qādī of Shīrāz; see al-Suyūṭī, Dhayl ṭabaqāt al-huffāz, appened to Tadhkira, V. 249.

⁹⁰ Dhikr man yu'tamad qawluh fi l-jarh wa l-ta'dīl, found in 'Abd al-Fattāḥ Abū Gludda, Arba' rasā'il fi 'ulūm al-ḥadīth (Beirut, 1401). This book has not been accessible to me. The description of this epistle can be found in al-Ḥāfiz al-Dhahabī, 396-7 and al-Mūqiza, 68 (footnote 2).

[&]quot;I The editor of al-Mūqiza has interpreted somewhat misleadingly these two lists to be a unitary twenty-four tabaqāt whole. There is a somewhat awkward interpolation immediately following Ibn al-Sharqī's name of the sentence: "And among those who are described as possessing a strong memory and proficiency is a group of the saḥāba and tābi'ūn" (wa mimman yūṣafu bi-l-ḥifzi wa l-itāpin jamā'atun min al-saḥābati wa l-tābi'īn, p. 71). The initial group of nine tabaqāt is introduced merely by the expression "wa l-ḥuffāzu tabaqāt" (p. 68). I have labeled below the first nine tabaqāt as list "a" and the remaining fifteen as list "b." Since list "b" begins with contemporaries of the third tabaqa in list "a," the numbers in list "b" range from tabaqāt 3-17. Note that this list is not found in Ibn Daqīq al-ʿĪd's al-Iqtirāḥ fī bayān al-iṣtilāḥ, and so it can be assumed that al-Dhahabī inserted it into al-Mūqiza in the course of his abridgement of Ibn Daqīq al-ʿĪd's book.

¹⁹² Al-Mūqiza lacks the trademark meticulous organization and clarity of al-Dhahabī's major works, and it reads like an extemporaneous lecture on the subject of the basic hadīth disciplines for a class of novice students. Despite this atypical sloppiness, the book is particularly valuable for the task of identifying al-Dhahabī's favorite scholars, since it preserves what may have been his final opinions on this topic.

scholars, but rather one that seeks to include the names of those whose names are well known throughout the Islamic world and with which every aspiring student of hadīth should be familiar. 93 This book is just a list of 2443 names over twenty-eight tabaqāt, and the quality of the transmitter is mentioned only occasionally.94 The Muin. like al-Mūqiza, appears to be a late, unpolished work that may have been dictated from memory, and is of interest only insofar as it provides another historical vision of the history of the first seven centuries of hadīth transmission.

The most important tabaga-work by al-Dhahabī for the historical framework of this project is his Tadhkirat al-huffāz. This book contains a modest amount of biographical information for 1222 scholars "whose opinions one consults in matters of reliability of transmitters and authenticity of the material."95 The term hāfiz, when combined with the expression thabt, is explicitly included among the highest ratings for a hadīth transmitter in Mīzān al-i'tidāl, 96 whereas the expression thiga hāfiz is considered the second highest category in al-Mūqiza.⁹⁷ This expression is further clarified in the entry of Abū Zur'a al-Rāzī al-saghīr (d. 375/985-6),98 in which al-Dhahabī disagrees with al-Khatīb al-Baghdādī's evaluation of Abū Zur'a as a hāfiz because he "transmitted suspect hadīth (manākīr), as other huffāz do, but did not identify them as such; this is something that denigrates one from the status of hāfiz."99 This quotation indicates that a hāfiz is free to transmit many weak hadīth, but that he must be capable of identifying them as suspect, and, presumably, explain the causes of their weakness to his students

Al-Dhahabī's embrace of the tabaqāt form of periodization in all of his historical presentations of hadīth-transmitters suggests the utility of a closer examination of the manifestation of the tabaqāt structure in Muslim historical writings. The words tabaq and tibaq are found in the Qur'an in three verses where they appear twice in connection with the seven seamless heavens, and once in a somewhat ambiguous passage alluding to either the states of creation or the soul's ascension to heaven. 100 Ibrahim Hafsi has articulated the semantic breadth of the word tabaqa, which can mean class, value, generation, merit, degree, and group, as well as hierarchy, covering, and all-embracing. 101 Franz Rosenthal has suggested that the tabaqa division is "genuinely Islamic" and the "oldest chronological division which presented itself to Muslim historical thinking."102 Tarif Khalidi has clarified the deeper differences beneath the superficial similarities between Arabic genealogical works and tabaqāt books, and emphasizes the role of Muhammad b. 'Umar al-Wāqidī (d. 207/823) in the inauguration of the tabaqat structure in his lost texts, some of which served as the platform for al-Tabaqāt al-kabīr of his student and scribe, Ibn Sa'd. 103 The salient features of the tabagāt format expressed in these studies, as well as the books of al-Dhahabī, are 1) its inherent facility to depict teacher-pupil relationships across time; 2) its capability to carve broad groups out of vast numbers of scholars across three continents; 3) its flexibility, in that the historian can select as many 'generations' as he or she deems necessary for the types of scholars so evaluated. The tabaqāt system of organization, in short, provides a far smoother narrative of the evolution of the Muslim community, phase by phase, than the antinomian effect of the annalistic histories, in which each year ends with a deluge of obituaries that inevitably obscures the greater story of the transmission of knowledge across time.

⁹³ Fa-hadhihi muqaddimatun fi dhikri asma'i a'lāmi hamalati l-āthāri l-nabawiyyati tubassiru l-tāliba l-nabīha wa tudhakkiru l-muḥadditha l-mufida bi-man yaqbuḥu bi-l-ṭalabati an yajhalūhum wa laysa hadhā kitābun bi-l-mustawibi li-l-kibāri bal li-man sāra dhikruhu fi l-aqtāri wa l-a'sār; al-Mu'īn (Beirut, 1998), 7.

The thirteenth tabaga has quite a few evaluations, for example, whereas the twenty-third tabaga has virtually none; al-Mu'in, 112-4, 168-177.

⁹⁵ Tadhkira, I, 7. The one-sentence introduction reads as follows: hadhihi tadhkiratun bi-asmā'i mu'adallī hamlati l-'ilmi l-nabawī wa man yurja'u ilā ijtihādihim fī l-tawthīqi wa l-tad îfi wa l-tashīhi wa l-tazyīf.

⁹⁶ Mīzān al-i tidāl, I, 4. Other terms equal to thabt hāfiz include thabt hujja, thiqa mutgin, and thiga thiga.

Al-Mūgiza, 76-7. Note that al-Dhahabī seems to have modified his opinion from that articulated in his earlier work Mīzān al-i'tidāl and created a new four-tier rating system for reliable transmitters: 1) imām, hujja, thabt, jahbadh, thiqa thiqa; 2) thiqa hāfiz; 3) thiga mutgin; 4) thiga 'ārif, hāfiz sadūg.

Not to be confused with the "greater" Abū Zur'a al-Rāzī (d. 264/878) to whom Muslim b. al-Hajjāj is purported to read his Sahīh in order to certify its inclusion of exclusively sound hadith. The lesser Abū Zur'a is named Ahmad b. al-Ḥusayn b. 'Alī; Tadhkira, III, 137.

⁹⁹ Lahu tasānīfu kathīratun yarwī fihā l-manākīra ka-ghayrihi min al-huffāzi wa lā yubayyinu hālahā wa dhālika mimmā yuzrī bi-l-hāfiz; Tadhkira, III, 137-8.

¹⁰⁰ See Qur'an 84:19 for the use of tabaq and 67:3 and 71:15 for the use of tibaq. 101 Ibrahim Hafsi, "Recherches sur le genre tabaqāt," 230-3. See also the root t-b-q in Lisān al-arab, X (Beirut, 1956), 209-15 for an exhaustive array of meanings. 102 Frantz Rosenthal, History of Muslim Historiography (Leiden, 1952), 93. Despite

his identification of the importance of the tabaga approach to history, Rosenthal inexplicably devotes little more than two pages to it in his book.

¹⁰³ Khalidi, Arabic Historical Thought, 44-49.

Ibrahim Hafsi's catalog of works that are based on the tabagāt historiographical framework demonstrates its application to myriad fields of Arabo-Islamic civilization and the religious disciplines in particular in the centuries preceding al-Dhahabi. 104 Ibn Sa'd's al-Tabagāt al-kabīr is the earliest work in this style to have survived, and was closely followed by the book of Khalīfa b. al-Khayvāt al-'Usfūrī (d. 240/854) and 'Abd al-Mālik b. Habīb al-Andalusī (d. 238/853).105 The works of Ibn Hibbān al-Bustī (d. 354/965)106 and Abū l-Shaykh 'Abdullāh b. Muhammad al-Isbahānī (d. 369/979)107 dominate the tabagāt books of hadīth-transmitters in the fourth/tenth century, and one of the most comprehensive lists of master authorities arranged by tabagāt can be found in the introduction of Ibn 'Adī's al-Kāmil fī du'afā' al-rijāl. 108 Important hadīth-transmitter biographical dictionaries of the following two centuries include the large Hilyat al-awliyā' of Abū Nu'aym al-Işbahānī (d. 430/1039), Tabaqāt al-fuqahā' of Abū Ishāq al-Shīrāzī (d. 476/1083), Tabagāt al-huffāz min ahl al-hadīth of Yūsuf b. 'Abd al-'Azīz al-Dabbāgh al-Andalusī (d. 546/1151) and the Tabagāt al-ruwāt wa sanādīg al-hukaā of Ibn al-Jawzī (d. 597/1201). Al-Dhahabī even informs us in Siyar a'lām al-nubalā' that the direct inspiration for his compilation of Tadhkirat al-huffaz was the favorable opinion he had of 'Alī b. Mufaddal al-Magdisī's (d. 611/1214) Kītāb al-arba'īn al-murattaba 'alā l-tabagāt al-arba'īn. 109 This brief survey

Hassi's previously cited three-part article catalogs both extant and lost tabaqāt works in the following nine fields: hadīth scholars, Qur'ān reciters and exegetes, jurists (fuqahā'), ṣūfīs, poets, grammarians and lexicographers, hukamā' and physicians, general regional works, and "non-Sunnī spiritual families" (i.e. sectarian groups). It is somewhat surprising that he neglected to include what is probably the largest tabaqa work, namely al-Dhahabī's previously discussed Siyar a'lām al-nubalā'; this is probably due to the fact that its title does not indicate that it is a work of this genre.

105 Hafsi, I, 247-8. Both of these works have been published: Khalīfa b. Khayyāt, Kitāb al-Ţabaqāt (Baghdad, 1967); Ibn Habīb, Kītāb al-tā'rīkh (Madrid, 1991).

of major historical works concerned with hadīth-transmitters shows both the deep impact of Ibn Sa'd's Tabaqāt al-kabīr and al-Dhahabī's elevation of the genre to new heights with Siyar a'lām al-nubalā' and Tadhkirat al-huffāz.

The next task at hand is to analyze three of al-Dhahabī's books in order to articulate a preliminary historical periodization of the history of master <code>hadīth</code>-transmitter critics. The two easiest books with which to commence this quest are <code>Mīzān al-i'tidāl</code> and <code>al-Mūqiza</code>. Al-Dhahabī identifies the following twenty-three scholars in five groups as his primary sources of <code>hadīth</code>-transmitter criticism in the introduction to <code>Mīzān al-i'tidāl</code>:

Table 2.1: Master critics mentioned in Mīzān al-i'tidāl

Name	Death Date	Group/Book
Yaḥyā b. Sa'īd al-Qaṭṭān	198	One
Yaḥyā b. Maʻīn	233	Two
Abū Khaythama, Zuhayr b. Ḥarb	234	Two
'Alī b. 'Abdullāh al-Madīnī	234	Two
Ibn Ḥanbal, Aḥmad b. Muḥammad	241	Two
al-Fallās, Abū Ḥafṣ 'Amr b. 'Alī	249	Two
al-Bukhārī, Muḥammad b. Ismāʻīl	256	Three
Ibrāhīm b. Yaʻqūb al-Jūzajānī	259	Three
Muslim b. al-Ḥajjāj	261	Three
Abū Zur'a al-Rāzī, 'Ubayd Allāh b.		
'Abd al-Karīm	264	Three
Abū Ḥātim al-Rāzī, Muḥammad b. Idrīs	277	Three
al-Tirmidhī, Abū 'Īsā Muḥammad b. 'Īsā	279	Four
al-Nasā'ī, Aḥmad b. Shu'ayb	303	Four
al-Dūlābī, Abū Bishr Muḥammad b.		
Aḥmad	310	Four
Ibn Khuzayma, Abū Bakr Muḥammad		
b. Isḥāq	311	Four
al-'Uqaylī, Abū Ja'far Muḥammad b. 'Amr	322	Four
Ibn Abī Ḥātim, 'Abd al-Raḥmān b.		
Muḥammad	327	$Book^{110}$

when he mentions that 'Ubayd Allāh b. 'Umar, Mālik, Shu'ba, and Sufyān al-Thawrī comprise the second tabaqa, that Ibn al-Mubārak, Yaḥyā l-Qaṭṭān, 'Abd al-Raḥmān b. Mahdī, and Ibn Wahb comprise the third tabaqa, and that al-Shāfi'ī, Ibn Ḥanbal, Ibn al-Madīnī, and Ibn Ma'īn are the four members of the fourth tabaqa according to Ibn al-Mufadḍal; Tadhkira, I, 121, 204, and 266.

110 Presumably his famous work al-Jarh wa l-ta'tāl.

¹⁰⁶ Hafsi, I, 250; Tadhkira, 89; GAS, I, 189–91. Ibn Hibbān is particularly famous for his twelve-volume encyclopedia of the tābiʿūn entitled Kītāb al-thiqāt (Hafsi mislabels this work as Kītāb al-tābiʿīn) and might be responsible for their classification into three tabaqāt (pace Hafsi, who credits al-Dhahabī with this achievement, p. 258).

¹⁰⁷ Hafsi, I, 251; *Tadhkira*, III, 105. This book has been published: Abū Muḥammad 'Abdullāh b. Ja'far b. Ḥayyān al-ma'rūf bi-Abī al-Shaykh al-Iṣbahānī, *Ṭabaqāt al-muḥaddithīn bi-Iṣbahān wa l-wāridīn 'alayhā* (Beirut, 1987–88).

This text is analyzed below in chapter four.

¹⁰⁹ Siyar, XXII, 65; al-Ḥāfiz al-Dhahabī, 460. This book has survived in manuscript and consists of four scholars per tabaqa for ten tabaqāt down to the fifth/eleventh century. Al-Dhahabī cites this work in several places in Tadhkirat al-huffāz, such as

Table 2.1 (cont.)

Name	Death Date	Group/Book
Ibn Hibbān, Abū Hātim Muhammad		
al-Bustī	354	$Book^{111}$
Ibn 'Adī, Abū Aḥmad 'Abdullāh al-Jurjānī	365	al-Kāmil
al-Azdī, Abū l-Fatḥ Muḥammad b.		
al-Husayn	374	$\mathrm{Book^{112}}$
al-Dāraquṭnī, Abū l-Ḥasan 'Alī b. 'Umar	385	al-Đuʻafā'
al-Hākim al-Naysābūrī, Abū 'Abdullāh	405	al-Du'afā'
Ibn al-Jawzī, Abū l-Faraj 'Abd al-Raḥmān		. 0
b. 'Alī	597	Book ¹¹³

There are three aspects of this list that are of particular interest. The first is that al-Dhahabī, following a quotation of Ibn Hanbal, places the prominent Başran scholar Yahyā b. Sa'īd al-Qattān at the head of the list of hadith-transmitter critics. 114 The second observation is that all but the first and last men on this list lived the greatest portions of their lives in the third/ninth and fourth/tenth centuries. Particularly conspicuous is the century and a half gap between al-Hākim al-Navsābūrī and Ibn al-Jawzī and the nearly two century lacuna between Ibn al-Jawzī and al-Dhahabī. Finally, it is important to recognize that only six of these master critics lived prior to al-Bukhārī, and ten of them flourished in the century following the compilation of what came to be known as the 'six canonical' Sunnī hadīth books. While the introduction to Mīzān al-i'tidāl provides several clues as to the indentities of the most important hadīth scholars in the eyes of al-Dhahabī, it is clear that we must cast the net further in order to obtain a more complete grasp of the most distinguished scholars of this tradition.

Al-Mūgiza, despite its brevity and unevenness, provides several useful indications of al-Dhahabi's favorite scholars. The most unambiguous statement on this topic is that "the sources of knowledge of the reliable transmitters (al-thiqāt) are al-Tārīkh of al-Bukhārī, [al-7arh wa lla'dīl of] Ibn Abī Hātim, [Kitāb al-thigāt] of Ibn Hibbān, and Tahdhīb al-kamāl [of al-Mizzī]."115 Al-Dhahabī also identifies three classes of critics—severe (hādd), fair (mu^ctadil), and lenient (mutasāhul)—and names a select few transmitters to each of them. Yahyā b. Sa'īd al-Qattān, Ibn Ma'ın, Abu Hatim al-Razı, and Ibn Khirash¹¹⁶ are placed in the 'severe' category, Ibn Hanbal, al-Bukhārī, and Abū Zur'a al-Rāzī are 'fair,' and al-Tirmidhī, al-Hākim al-Naysābūrī, and, on occasion, al-Dāragutnī, are considered 'lenient.'117 These three gradations of severity are also found in Dhikr man yu'tamad gawluh fi *l-jarh wa l-ta'dīl*, although it is important to note that Ibn 'Adī is included among the category of the 'fair' critics in this treatise. 118 Note that all of the scholars mentioned in this paragraph, with the exceptions of al-Mizzī and Ibn Khirāsh, are also found in the list of critics presented in Mīzān al-i'tidāl and shed little light on the recently mentioned lacunae in the historical record of master critics.

The two skeletal lists discussed above in the introductory description of $al\text{-}M\bar{u}qiza$ provide a nearly unbroken series of master $had\bar{u}th$ scholars $(huff\bar{a}z)$ of some prestige from the time of the Prophet Muhammad to the eighth/fourteenth century.

Table 2.2: Master hadīth scholars in al-Mūgiza

Name	Death Date	Ţabaqa
1 Abū Hurayra al-Dawsī 2 Sa'īd b. al-Musayyab 3 al-Zuhrī, Muḥammad Ibn Shihāb 4 'Ubayd Allāh b. 'Umar b. Ḥafṣ b. 'Āṣim 5 Ibn 'Awn, 'Abdullāh b. Arṭabān	58 94 124 147 151	la 2a 3a . 3b 3b

¹¹³ yanbū'u ma'rifati l-thiqāti: tārīkh al-Bukhārī, wa Ibn Abī Ḥātim, wa Ibn Ḥibbān, wa kitāb al-tahdhīb al-kamāl; al-Mūqiza, 79.

 $^{^{111}}$ As the $M\bar{\imath}z\bar{a}n$ is particularly concerned with blemished transmitters, this probably refers to his book of weak scholars, $Kt\bar{a}b$ $al-majr\bar{u}h\bar{u}n$.

This probably refers to his large compilation of weak transmitters (du'afā') mentioned in al-Tadhkira, III, 117. Sezgin does not mention it in GAS, I, 199-200.

¹¹³ This almost certainly refers to his Kītāb al-du'afā' wa l-matrūkīn that al-Dhahabī abridged once and enlarged on two separate occasions; al-Ḥāfiz al-Dhahabī, 398.

¹¹⁴ Yahyā l-Qattān was fortunate to have studied closely with the great Basran scholar Shu'ba b. al-Hajjāj and even offered his home as a 'safe house' to Sufyān al-Thawrī during the latter's period of hiding in Baṣra from the 'Abbāsid caliphs around the year 160/777; see Ibn Sa'd, al-Tabaqāt al-kubrā, VI, 539. Yahyā's contribution to hadīth-transmitter criticism is discussed in detail in chapter four.

¹¹⁶ Abū Muḥammad 'Abd al-Raḥmān b. Yūsuf al-Marwazī, then al-Baghdādī (d. 283/896) is identified as "the critic" (al-nāqid) in the Tadhkira (II, 185).

^{&#}x27;'' Al-Mūqıza, 83

¹¹⁸ The strictest critics mentioned in this treatise are Abū Hātim al-Rāzī, Ibn Ma'īn, and Ibrāhīm b. Ya'qūb al-Jūzajānī; the lenient ones are al-Tirmidhī, al-Hākim al-Naysābūrī, and al-Bayhaqī; and the fair ones (al-mu'tadilūn al-munsifūn) are al-Bukhārī, Ibn Hanbal, Abū Zur'a al-Rāzī, and Ibn 'Adī; al-Hāfiz al-Dhahabī, 396-7.

Table 2.2 (cont.)

	Name	Death Date	Ţabaqa
6	Mis'ar b. Kidām, Abū Salama	155	3b
7	Shuʻba b. al-Hajjāj	160	4a
8	Zā'ida b. Qudāma, Abū l-Şalt	161	4b
9	Sufyān b. Sa'īd al-Thawrī	161	4a
10	al-Layth b. Sa'd	175	4b
11	Ḥammād b. Zayd	179	4b
12	Mālik b. Anas	179	4a
13	Ibn al-Mubārak, 'Abdullāh	181	5a
14	Ibn Wahb, 'Abdullāh b. Wahb al-Fihrī	197	5b
15	Wakī' b. al-Jarrāḥ	197	5a
16	Yaḥyā b. Saʻīd al-Qaṭṭān	198	5a
17	'Abd al-Raḥmān b. Mahdī	198	5a
18	Abū Usāma, Ḥammād b. Usāma	201	5b
19	Yazīd b. Hārūn b. Zādhān al-Wāsitī	206	5b
20	Yaḥyā b. Ma'īn, Abū Zakariyyā	233	6a
21	Abū Khaythama, Zuhayr b. Harb	234	6b
22	'Alī b. 'Abdullāh al-Madīnī	234	6a
23	Ibn Numayr, Muḥammad b. 'Abdullāh	234	6b
24	Ibn Abī Shayba, Abū Bakr 'Abdullāh b.	-0.	0.0
	Muḥammad	235	6b
25	Ibn Rāhawayh, Isḥāq b. Ibrāhīm	238	6a
26	Ibn Hanbal, Ahmad b. Muhammad	241	6a
27	Aḥmad b. Ṣāliḥ al-Ṭabarī	248	6b
28	al-Bukhārī, Muḥammad b. Ismā'īl	256	7a
29	Muslim b. al-Ḥajjāj al-Naysābūrī	261	7a
30	Abū Zur'a al-Rāzī, 'Ubayd Allāh b. 'Abd	201	,
	al-Karīm	264	7a
31	Ibn Wāra, Muḥammad b. Muslim al-Rāzī	270	7b
32	'Abbās b. Muhammad al-Dūrī	271	7b
33	Abū Dāwūd al-Sijistānī, Sulaymān b.	2,1	7.0
, ,	al-Ash'ath	275	7a
34	Abū Ḥātim al-Rāzī, Muḥammad b. Idrīs	277	7a 7a
35	Ibn Abī Khaythama, Abū Bakr Aḥmad b.	2//	14
,,	Zuhayr	279	7b
36	al-Tirmidhī, Abū 'Īsā Muḥammad b. 'Īsā	279	7b
37	'Abdullāh b. Aḥmad b. Ḥanbal	290	7b 7b
38			
39	Ṣāliḥ b. Muḥammad Jazara, Abū 'Alī Abū 'Imrān, Mūsā b. Hārūn al-Bazzāz	293	8a
59 40		294	8a
	al-Nasā'ī, Aḥmad b. Shu'ayb	303	8a
41	Ibn al-Akhram, Abū Ja'far Muḥammad b.	010	01
42	al-ʿAbbās Ibn Khuzayma, Muḥammad b. Isḥāq	310	8b
	TOUR DITERMENT WILLIAM TO TO A LEB O	311	8a

Table 2.2 (cont.)

_	Name	Death Date	Ţabaqa
43	Ibn Ṣāʿid, Abū Muḥammad Yaḥyā b.		
	Muḥammad	318	8b
44	Ibn Jawṣā, Abū l-Ḥasan Aḥmad b. 'Umayr	320	8b
45	Ibn Ziyād, Abū Bakr 'Abdullāh b.	020	00
	Muḥammad	324	8b
46	Ibn al-Sharqī, Abū Ḥāmid Aḥmad b.	021	00
	Muḥammad	325	9a
47	Ibn 'Adī, Abū Aḥmad 'Abdullāh	365	9b
48	al-Ismā'īlī, Abū Bakr Aḥmad b. Ibrāhīm	371	9b
49	al-Ḥākim, Abū Aḥmad Muḥammad b.	371	30
	Muḥammad	378	9b
50	Ibn Manda, Abū 'Abdullāh Muḥammad	0,70	30
	b. Isḥāq	395	10b
51	Abū Ḥāzim al-'Abdawī, 'Umar b. Aḥmad	418	11b
52	al-Barqānī, Abū Bakr Ahmad b. Muḥammac	l 425	llb
53	al-Bayhaqī, Abū Bakr Ahmad b. al-Ḥusayn	458	12b
54	Ibn 'Abd al-Barr, Abū 'Umar Yūsuf	463	12b
55	al-Humaydī, Abū 'Abdullāh Muḥammad b.	100	120
	Abī Naṣr	488	13b
56	Ibn Ṭāhir al-Maqdisī, Abū l-Faḍl		130
	Muḥammad	507	13b
57	al-Sam'ānī, Abū Sa'd 'Abd al-Karīm b.	00,	130
	Muḥammad	562	14b
58	al-Silafī, Abū Ṭāhir Aḥmad b. Muḥammad	576	14b
59	al-Ḥāzimī, Abū Sa'īd Muḥammad b. Mūsā	584	15b
60	al-Ruhāwī, 'Abd al-Qādir b. 'Abdullāh		150
	al-Ḥanbalī	612	15b
61	al-Diyā', Muḥammad b. 'Abd al-Wāḥid	643	16b
62	Ibn Sayyid al-Nās, Muḥammad b. Aḥmad	659	16b
63	Abū l-Fath, Muḥammad b. Muḥ. Ibn Sayyid	000	100
	al-Nās	734	17b

Several observations can be gleaned from these seventeen *tabaqāt*. It is probably appropriate that Abū Hurayra, the *sahābī* whom Ibn al-Ṣalāḥ credits with the greatest aggregate of transmissions, and his son-in-law Sa'īd b. al-Musayyab, crown this list of illustrious *hadīth* scholars. The generations of al-Zuhrī and Shu'ba b. al-Ḥajjāj form the bridge from the senior *tābī'cīn* to the master critic Yaḥyā b. Sa'īd al-Qaṭṭān and his contemporaries (*tabaqa* 5). The third/ninth century makes another strong showing in this selection, and includes twenty-

six scholars from Ibn Ma'ın (tabaqa 6) through Ibn al-Sharqı (tabaqa 9a). Five new scholars of the fifth/eleventh century appear in this list, two of whom hail from al-Andalus. There remains an irritating lacuna in the first half of the sixth century between Ibn Ṭāhir al-Maqdisı (d. 507/1113-4) and Abū Sa'd al-Sam'anı al-Marwazı (d. 562/1167). Likewise, the gap between the Andalusı Ibn Sayyid al-Nās (d. 659/1261) and his grandson Abū l-Fath Muḥammad b. Muḥammad begs for an explanation. While the Mūqiza has narrowed the historical abysses manifest in the list of master hadīth-transmitter critics in Mīzān al-i'tidāl, it is apparent that an investigation of the Tadhkirat al-huffāz is necessary in order to gain a more complete understanding of al-Dhahabī's favorite scholars in this field during the first seven centuries of Islamic civilization.

How do we sort the sublime hāfiz from the merely good hāfiz in Tadhkirat al-huffāz? One technique would be to extract only the scholars who are of the highest grade of excellence according to the criteria articulated in al-Mūqiza, namely those scholars evaluated as imām, hujja, thabt, jahbadh, or thiqa thiqa. 120 Unfortunately, this approach does not reduce the number of entries to a manageable number, as it seems that roughly half of the men included in the Tadhkira are classified as imāms. 121 Fortunately, there is an undefined term of distinction employed by al-Dhahabī a mere fifty-four times in the Tadhkira that occurs at least once in nineteen of the twenty-one tabaqāt whose importance shall be made clear in the next few paragraphs: Shaykh al-Islām. 122

122 The word 'Shaykh' is a term of respect and honor, usually reserved for elders in general, and master teachers in particular. The term in English reads something like 'The Senior Islamic Scholar.'

The term Shaykh al-Islām has a rich history as an honorific for "the most admired of influential 'ulamā' in their milieux." It seems to have originated in Khurāsān towards the end of the fourth/tenth century and eventually became an actual office in the following century in the East. Bulliet observes that the term does not appear to have been strictly honorific in Syria and Egypt, and mentions the example of Ibn Taymiyya as someone who received this title from his admirers but not his detractors. The Shaykh al-Islām acquired an unequivocal bureaucratic status under the Ottoman Empire, as the muftā of the capital, as far back as the turn of the eighth/fourteenth century. Neither Bulliet's article, nor the modern biographies by Bashshār 'Awwād Ma'rūf and 'Abd al-Sattār al-Shaykh even mention al-Dhahabī's usage of this term, and, since al-Dhahabī does not elucidate its meaning in either Mīzān al-i'tidāl nor al-Mūqiza, a brief discussion about its significance is in order.

Al-Dhahabī employs a colorful array of honorifics in *Tadhkirat al-huffāz* that include either the word "Shaykh" or "Islām." The use of the former is far more common than that of the latter, and the majority of examples involving the term Shaykh are used in conjunction with either a geographical location or category of scholars. Abū 'Amr al-Ḥīrī (d. 317/929) is identified as the Shaykh of Nishapur, 126 Ibn al-Jabbāb Aḥmad b. Khālid (d. 322/934) as the Shaykh of al-Andalus, 127 Abū l-Qāsim al-Zanjānī (d. 471/1078–9) as the Shaykh of al-Ḥaram al-Sharīf (Mecca), 128 Muḥammad b. Yūsuf al-Firyābī (d. 212/827) as the Shaykh of Syria, 129 and al-Bayhaqī (d. 458/1066) as the Shaykh of all of Khurāsān. 130 Among the masters of certain

¹³⁰ Tadhkira, III, 219. An earlier 'Shaykh of Khurāsān' is al-Bukhārī's teacher

¹¹⁹ Ibn 'Abd al-Barr (#54) and al-Humaydī (#55).

¹²⁰ Al-Mūqiza, 76.

¹²¹ A sampling of tabaqāt from the second half of the Tadhkira yields the following imām percentages: tabaqa 11 is 44% imāms; tabaqa 13 is 52% imāms; tabaqa 15 is 60% imāms; and tabaqa 17 is 71% imāms. The total number of imāms in these four tabaqāt is 112 out of 220 entries (51%). This high yield is not surprising because it is in line with the Ibn Taymiyya salafī articulation of transcendental Sunnism that seeks as diverse a group of scholarly role models as possible, in contrast to the narrow legal madhhab approach of the mediocre masses of jurists. It should not be forgotten that the salafī Sunnīs did not have a monopoly on this universalistic spirit, for any intellectually oriented jurist would have to be well versed in the teachings of the imāms of the three Sunnī madhāhib to which he did not belong. Note that al-Dhahabī does appear to be much more selective with the terms huja, thabt, thiqa, and especially jahbadh.

¹²³ R. W. Bulliet, "Shaykh al-Islām," part 1, *EI2*, IX, 399–400. See also his article "The Shaikh al-Islam and the evolution of Islamic society," *Studia Islamica*, XXXV (1972), 53–67.

^{124 &}quot;Shaykh al-Islām,"part 2, E12, IX, 400.

¹²⁵ The only occurrence of the expression 'shaykh' in the technical sense meaning "head of a religious school" is the case of the nineteenth-tabaqa scholar Ibn al-Şābūnī (d. 604/1207-8), who is identified as Shaykh Dār al-Nūriyya; Tadhkira, IV, 170.

¹²⁶ Tadhkira, III, 15.

¹²⁷ Tadhkira, III, 25.

¹²⁸ Tadhkira, III, 243. The prominent student of the mystic al-Junayd, Ibn al-A'rābī (d. 340/951-2; tabaqa 13), is also identified as a Shaykh al-Ḥaram; ibid., III, 47-8.

¹²⁹ Tadhkira, I, 275. Another 'Shaykh of the people of Syria' of the same generation is Abu Mushir 'Abd al-A'lā b. Mushir (d. 218/833) who fell victim to the mihna; ibid., I, 279.

classes of scholars, we find Muḥammad b. Dāwūd (d. 342/953) as the Shaykh of the Ṣūfīs, ¹³¹ Ibn al-Ḥuṣrī (d. 619/1222) as the Shaykh of the Qur'ān reciters (al-qurrā'), ¹³² and al-Dimyāṭī (d. 705/1306) as the Shaykh of the hadīth scholars (muḥaddithūn). ¹³³ Two special cases are Ibn al-Zubayr (d. 708/1308–9), who is the Shaykh of both the hadīth scholars and Qur'ān reciters in al-Andalus, ¹³⁴ and al-Barqānī (d. 425/1034), Shaykh of the jurists (fuqahā'), hadīth scholars, and all of Baghdād. ¹³⁵

Three other types of compound honorifics employing the word Shaykh can be found in *Tadhkirat al-huffāz*. The first of these is one that acknowledges a scholar's accomplishments in a particular art or skill outside of the core disciplines of Qur'ān recitation, *ḥadīth* transmission, and jurisprudence, as can be seen in the cases of the Shaykh of belle-lettres (*adab*), Ibn al-Anbārī (d. 328/940), ¹³⁶ and the Shaykh of Mu'tazilī theology (*i'tizāl*), al-Sammān (d. 445/1053). ¹³⁷ Secondly, al-Diyā' Muḥammad b. 'Abd al-Wāḥid al-Maqdisī (d. 643/1245) is identified as 'Shaykh al-Sunna,' which probabaly indicates a mastery of Sunnī *ḥadīth* or theology. ¹³⁸ The final compound honorific of interest is that of a temporal nature, and two examples of this type found in *Tadhkirat al-huffāz* are the "Shaykh of the time (*al-waqt*)" Abū Bakr

Makkī b. Ibrāhīm (d. 215/830) who returned to Balkh after a decade in Mecca; *ibid.*, I, 268. Note also Ibn Rāhawayh's sobriquet 'Shaykh of the people of the East'; *ibid.*, II, 17.

al-Firyābī (d. 301/913)¹³⁹ and the Egyptian "Shaykh of his era" ('aṣrih), Ibn Ḥaddād (d. 344/956). ¹⁴⁰

Al-Dhahabī appears to be extremely conservative in his use of compound honorifics with the word 'Islām' in *Tadhkirat al-huffāz*. Abū 'Alī al-Ḥusayn b. 'Alī al-Naysābūrī (d. 349/960) and 'Abd al-Ghanī b. 'Abd al-Wāḥid al-Maqdisī (d. 600/1204) are the only two post-canonical master *hadīth* scholars to be praised with the expression *Muḥaddith* al-Islām. One of the only other example of a glorification based on the word "Islām," other than Shaykh al-Islām, is reserved for the "Crown of Islām" (tāj al-islām) Abū Sa'd al-Sam'ānī (d. 562/1167), whose encyclopedia al-Ansāb proved to be invaluable in al-Dhahabī's own historical investigations.

This brief analysis of the terms 'Shaykh' and 'Islām' demonstrates how al-Dhahabī restricted the fairly broad former expression with the latter one in his compound honorific 'Shaykh al-Islām,' but it sheds little light on his criteria for inclusion in this elite coterie of scholars. A closer look at the fifty-four members of this group reveals four primary qualities that appear to be at work in al-Dhahabī's discerning mind. The first quality is that all of these men are qualified as Imām in addition to Shaykh al-Islām, while this is not always the case among other scholars who are identified as Shaykh. The second trait, which might be related to the first, is the overt rejection of all forms of speculative theology (kalām), whether of a Mu'tazilī or state-sanctioned Ash'arī variety. The third characteristic is a degree of exceptional erudition in at least two of the following four disciplines: Qur'ānic readings, general hadīth criticism ('slal), hadīth-transmitter criticism (al-jarh wa l-ta'dīl), and jurisprudence. The

Tadhkira, III, 78.
Tadhkira, IV, 117.

¹³³ Tadhkira, IV, 179. His name is 'Abd al-Mu'min b. Khalaf. Ibn Farh al-Ishbīlī (d. 699/1300) of tabaga 21 is also graced with this honorific; ibid., IV, 185.

¹³⁴ Tadhkira, IV, 183. His name is Ahmad b. Ibrāhīm b. al-Zubayr.

¹³⁵ Tadhkira, III, 183. His name is Abū Bakr Ahmad b. Muhammad b. Ahmad.

¹³⁶ Tadhkira, III, 42.

¹³⁷ Tadhkira, III, 2127. The case of al-Sammān is particularly interesting, not just because he is a Mu'tazilī who was gifted with proficiency in the arts of hadīth transmission, but because al-Dhahabī "denigrates" him from the rank of Shaykh al-Islām. This denigration was probably due to the fact that al-Dhahabī could not accept any champion of speculative theology (kalām), whether Mu'tazilī or Ash'arī, among the most elite master scholars of Islamic civilization.

b. 'Umar (d. around 160/777) who settled in al-Madā'in; *ibid.*, I, 169. Compound honorifics with the word Sunna are extremely rare in the *Tadhkira*; other examples are the 'Sign of the Sunna' ('alam al-sunna') Abū Naṣr al-Sijzī (d. 444/1052-3), and the 'Reviver of the Sunna' (muḥyī l-sunna) Abū Muḥammad al-Baghawī (d. 516/1122); *ibid.*, III, 211 and IV, 37.

¹³⁹ Tadhkira, II, 190. His name is Ja'far b. Muḥammad and he served as a judge in Dīnawār.

¹⁴⁰ Tadhkira, III, 77. Honorifics with temporal expressions are relatively infrequent in the Tadhkira; examples include, the 'musnid of his time' (zamānih) Abū l-Shaykh al-Isbahānī (d. 369/979-80), the "hāfiz of the time" (al-zamān) Ibn al-Naḥhās al-Miṣrī (d. 370/980-1), and the 'muhaddith of the age' (al-ʿcər) Abū 'Abdullāh Ibn Manda (d. 395/1005); Tadhkira, III, 105, 134, and 157, respectively.

Examples of Shuyūkh who are not Imāms include the Shāfi'ī Ibn al-Ḥaddād and the Mu'tazilī al-Sammān; Tadhkira, III, 77 and 213.

¹⁴² Al-Dhahabī explicitly lauds Ibn al-Ṣalāḥ for shunning all speculative theology; *Tadhkira*, IV, 149.

of these categories. If my hypothesis is correct, it would explain why only al-Bukhārī and al-Nasā'ī are labeled as Shaykh al-Islām among the six canonical compilers; only these two men left distinguished works in both the fields of general hadīth

fourth and final quality is a serious degree of asceticism and even "moderate Ṣūfism" of the types associated with Ibn al-Mubārak (d. 181/797) and 'Aṭiyya b. Sa'īd al-Andalusī (d. 408/1017–8 in Mecca), respectively. The following chart of al-Dhahabī's fifty-four Shuyūkh al-Islām found in *Tadhkirat al-ḥuffāz* brings us one step closer to the goal of our quest for a historical framework of the first seven centuries of Sunnī ḥadīth scholarship.¹⁴⁴

Table 2.3: Shuyūkh al-Islām in Tadhkirat al-ḥuffāz

	Name	Death Date	City	Ţabaqa
1 2 3 4 5 6 7 8 9 10	Saʻīd b. al-Musayyab al-Ḥasan b. Abī l-Ḥasan al-Baṣrī Muḥammad b. al-Munkadir Yaḥyā b. Saʻīd al-Anṣārī Sulaymān al-Taymī al-Aʻmash, Sulaymān b. Mihrān al-Awzāʻī, ʻAbd al-Raḥmān b. ʻAmr Shuʻba b. al-Ḥajjāj Sufyān b. Saʻīd al-Thawrī Ḥammād b. Salama Mālik b. Anas	94 110 130 143 143 148 157 160 161 167 179	Medina Basra Medina Basra Kufa Syria Basra Kufa Basra Medina	2 3 4 4 4 5 5 5 5

criticism and hadīth-transmitter criticism. (Note that outside Tadhkirat al-huffāz al-Dhahabī explicitly states his own opinion that al-Nasā'ī was more proficient with respect to hadīth, hadīth defects ('ilal'), and hadīth-transmitters than Muslim, Abū Dāwūd, and al-Tirmidhī; Siyar, XIV, 133.) There may be exceptions to my "two disciplines" rule, however, as I am not thoroughly familiar with the works of all fifty-four Shuyūkh al-Islām, but I think that it holds true for the vast majority of them.

144 Note that al-Dhahabī is not consistent with his employment of the term Shaykh al-Islām in Tadhkirat al-huffāz, Siyar a'lām al-nubalā', and Tarīkh al-Islām. For example, of the first 49 Shuyūkh al-Islām listed in the Tadhkira, the following 17 men do not receive this sobriquet in their respective entries in Siyar a'lām al-nubalā': Sa'īd b. al-Musayyab, al-Hasan al-Başrī, Yahyā b. Sa'īd al-Anṣārī, Shu'ba b. al-Hajjāj, Abū Ishāq al-Fazārī, al-Husayn al-Ju'fi, Abū 'Āṣim, al-Muqrī, al-Ṣūrī, Hishām b. 'Ammār, al-Ashajj, al-Dārimī, al-Bukhārī (!), Ibn Abī Ḥātim, 'Aṭiyya b. Sa'īd, al-Dānī, and Abū Mūsā l-Madīnī. We shall see also in chapter five that certain scholars are identified as Shaykh al-Islām in the Siyar but not in the Tadhkira. Finally, al-Dhahabī is extremely conservative with his use of the expression Shaykh al-Islām in Tārīkh al-Islām, as only Sufyān al-Thawrī, Mālik b. Anas, Ibn al-Mubārak, al-Fudavl b. Ivād, Ibn Uyayna, 'Abdullāh al-Anṣārī, and al-Nawawī receive this designation among the 54 Shuyūkh al-Islām found in the Tadhkira. Despite al-Dhahabī's inconsistent application of this sobriquet, it does appear that he reserves it for the very best and most pious hadith scholars, and it is thus a useful signifier for his favorite experts of this discipline.

Table 2.3 (cont.)

	Name	Death Date	City	Ţabaqa
12	'Abdullāh b. al-Mubārak	181	Khurāsān, Syria	6
13	Abū Isḥāq al-Fazārī	185	Syria	6
14	al-Fudayl b. 'Iyād	187	Mecca	6
15	Abū Bakr b. 'Ayyāsh	193	Kufa	6
16	Sufyān b. 'Uyayna	198	Mecca	6
17	Yazīd b. Hārūn	206	Wāsiţ	6
18	al-Ḥusayn b. 'Alī al-Ju'fī al-Muqrī	203	Kufa	7
19	Abū 'Āṣim al-Daḥḥāk b. Makhlad	212	Basra	7
20	al-Muqrī, Abū 'Abd al-Raḥmān	213	Basra, Mecca	7
21	al-Şūrī, Muḥammad b. al-Mubārak	215	Syria	7
22	al-Qa'nabī, 'Abdullāh b. Maslama	221	Basra, Mecca	7
23	Ibn Hanbal, Ahmad b. Muhammad	241	Baghdad	8
24	Hishām b. 'Ammār	245	Syria	8
25	al-Ashajj, Abū Sa'īd 'Abdullāh	257	Kufa	8
26	al-Dārimī, 'Abdullāh b. 'Abd			
	al-Raḥmān	255	Samarqand	9
27	al-Bukhārī, Muḥammad b. Ismā'īl	256	Bukhara	9
28	al-Dhuhlī, Muḥammad b. Yaḥyā	258	Nishapur	9
29	Ismā'īl al-Qāḍī, Abū Isḥāq	282	Baghdad	9
30	al-Ḥarbī, Abū Isḥāq Ibrāhīm b.			
	Islįāq	285	Baghdad	9
31	Baqiyy b. Makhlad al-Qurtubī	276	Andalusia	10
32	Muḥammad b. Naṣr al-Marwazī	294	Samarqand	10
33	al-Nasā'ī, Aḥmad b. Shu'ayb	303	Syria, Êgypt	10
34	Ibn Khuzayma, Muḥammad b. Isḥāq	311	Nishapur	10
35	Ibn Surayj, al-Qādī Abū l-'Abbās	306	Baghdad	11
36	Ibn Abī Ḥātim, 'Abd al-Raḥmān	327	Rayy	11
37	Abū l-Nadr al-Tūsī, Muḥammad	344	Ţūs	12
38	al-Ismā'īlī, Abū Bakr Aḥmad	371	Jurjān	12 .
39	Ibn Mihrān, Abū Muslim	375	Baghdad	12
40	al-Dāraquṭnī, 'Alī b. 'Umar	385	Baghdad	12
41	'Aṭiyya b. Sa'īd al-Ṣūfī	408	Andalusia,	13
	.,,		Mecca	
42	al-Dānī, 'Uthmān b. Sa'īd	444	Cordoba	14
43	Ibn 'Abd al-Barr, Abū 'Umar	463	Andalusia	14
44	Abū Ismā'īl 'Abdullāh al-Anṣārī	481	Herat	14
45	al-Taymī, Abū l-Qāsim Ismā'īl	535	Isfahan	15
46	Abū l-'Alā' al-Hamadhānī	569	Hamadhan	16
47	al-Silafī, Abū Ṭāhir Aḥmad	576	Isfahan,	16
	,	-	Alexandria	

Table 2.3 (cont.)

	Name	Death Date	City	Ţabaqa
48	Abū Mūsā l-Madīnī, Muḥammad	581	Isfahan	16
49	Ibn al-Şalāḥ, 'Uthmān	643	Khurāsān, Syria	18
50	al-Mundhirī, 'Abd al-'Azīm	656	Syria, Egypt	18
5 l	al-Nawawī, Yaḥyā b. Sharaf	676	Syria	20
52	Ibn Daqīq al-'Īd, Abū l-Fath	702	Égypt	20
53	al-Ḥārithī, Qāḍī al-Quḍāt Mas'ūd	712	Iraq, Egypt	21
54	Ibn Taymiyya, Aḥmad b. 'Abd al-Ḥalīm	728	Syria	21

The most important qualities of this elite group of master Sunnī scholars are its near-continuous nature and the geographical diversity of its members. Only two of the twenty post-sahāba tabaqāt are absolutely bereft of at least one Shaykh al-Islām (tabagāt 17 and 19), and none has more than six (tabaga 6). The proximity of these two defective tabagāt, the first on the eve of the Mongol irruption, and the second in the generation after the infamous sack of Baghdad (656/1258) not only suggests the massive damage of these Central Asian conquerors upon Sunnī hadīth erudition, but indicates a radical disjunction in the rich six century, sixteen tabagāt, far-flung global network of Muslim scholars. The master hadīth scholars of this network were limited to the Hijaz and Iraq for the first four tabagat, and flourished in Syria from the fifth to the tenth tabagāt. 145 Baghdad enjoyed the presence of a Shaykh al-Islām in each of the eighth through twelfth tabaqāt (except 10), but appears to have declined after the lives of Ibn Mihrān and al-Dāragutnī. The ninth tabaga vividly illustrates the dramatic rise in the quality of the scholars in the Eastern Iranian lands and Transoxania, a situation that persisted through 'Abdullah al-Ansarī in Herat (tabaga 15). The coterie of elite Sunnī scholars first achieved its global status in the tenth tabaqa, when Bagiyy b. Makhlad established a standard of erudition in al-Andalus that reached its apogee with the extraordinary scholars of Ibn 'Abd al-Barr and Abū 'Amr al-Dānī in the fourteenth tabaga, and continued to produce first rate scholars down to al-Dhahabī's time. Had Finally, the investment of the Seljuqs in Western Iran in general, and Isfahan in particular, is evidenced by the monopoly of this region among the Shuyūkh al-Islam of the fifteenth and sixteenth *tabaqāt*. Had Shuyūkh al-Islam of the fifteenth and sixteenth *tabaqāt*.

II.4 Conclusion

The purpose of this chapter was to construct both conceptual and historical frameworks for the inquiry into the development of Sunnī hadith scholarship during its first seven centuries of creative compilation. Ibn al-Ṣalāḥ's Muqaddima furnished the necessary conceptual framework by means of an array of technical terms, several of which had been established since the third and fourth centuries of Islamic civilization, and demonstrated the centrality of isnād criticism ('ilm alrijāl) to the hadīth disciplines. Al-Dhahabī's lists and books provided a skeletal outline of the historical development of Sunnī hadīth scholarship that stretched across the Dar al-Islam from Cordoba to Samarqand. Since the major lacunae that we encountered prior to and after Ibn al-Jawzī in the initial list of hadīth-transmitter critics found in Mīzān al-i'tidāl were narrowed far enough by our investigations into al-Mūqiza and Tadhkirat al-huffāz, it is now possible to articulate a seven-phase periodization of the first seven centuries of Sunnī hadīth scholarship, which will help illuminate the relationship of the generation of Ibn Sa'd, Ibn Ma'in and Ibn Hanbal to the greater story of this literature. 148

¹⁴⁵ It is interesting that the five Shuyūkh al-Islām who lived in Syria prior to the Mongols flourished under 'Abbāsid, and not Umayyad, rule.

¹⁴⁶ Al-Dhahabī remarks at the end of al-Mu'īn that the only places that still host strong Sunnī ḥadīth scholars in his day are Syria, Egypt, the Maghrib, and al-Andalus; al-Mu'īn, 232.

These findings are explored in far richer detail in the next chapter.

Note that that al-Dhahabī includes all of the previously cited men in $M\bar{\imath}z\bar{a}n$ al- $i'tid\bar{a}l$ and al- $M\bar{\imath}qiza$ in Tadhkirat al- $huff\bar{a}z$, and that, when these two lists are juxtaposed with the Shaykh al-Islām list, there is at least one master scholar for each of the twenty-one $tabaq\bar{a}t$ in the Tadhkira.

CHAPTER THREE

A HISTORICAL NARRATIVE: AL-DHAHABĪ'S VISION OF THE FIRST SEVEN CENTURIES OF SUNNĪ HADĪTH SCHOLARSHIP

III.1

How might a Sunnī scholar in Mamlūk Syria articulate the evolution of the <code>hadīth</code> literature from the time of the Prophet Muḥammad to his own milieu? The twenty-one <code>tabaqāt</code> structure of al-Dhahabī's <code>Tadhkirat al-ḥuffāz</code> answers this very question, as it describes the historical process of <code>hadīth</code> scholarship by carving a manageable number of 'generations' out of a seven hundred year period across a vast geographical area. It is necessary, however, prior to the presentation of this condensed articulation of al-Dhahabī's historical vision in seven phases, to clarify how this narrative contributes to the general understanding of the key role of <code>hadīth</code> scholars in the emergence of Sunnī Islam in the third/ninth century.

The first reason for this excursus is that I have chosen to study the emergence of Sunnism from the angle of several early books that fall under the rubric of <code>hadīth</code> literature. It has been demonstrated in the introduction of this book that Western scholarship has been concerned overwhelmingly with the question of authenticity of <code>hadīths</code> and shown little or no interest in its historical development.\(^1\) This chapter seeks to elucidate how the generation of Ibn Sa\(^1\)d, Ibn Ma\(^1\)n, and Ibn Hanbal fits into the broader tradition of Sunn\(^1\) hadīth scholarship that crystallized only during al-Dhahab\(^1\)s lifetime, in part due to his own scholarship.

A second major reason for this historical journey is that I believe that it is necessary to understand one master hadīth scholar's vision prior to the formulation of 'theories' concerning the literature in

Even the useful overview Hadīth Literature: Its Origin, Development, and Special Features by Muḥammad Zubayr Ṣiddīqī sheds relatively little light on the on the historical development of Sunnī hadīth scholarship, although it does identify most of the important published works of this literature.

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general. There is a dangerous habit, as was indicated in the introduction, for Western scholars to read small clippings of a very wide range of large tomes without ever studying one author's book in its entirety. It is somewhat striking that an accessible, modest length book like Tadhkirat al-huffāz, which has been published for at least a century, has never been analyzed as a composite whole, or read as al-Dhahabī's critical understanding of his own intellectual genealogy. This chapter, then, is an effort to grasp one insightful Muslim scholar's historical vision of hadīth scholarship in the hopes that it will illuminate the impact of the intense third/ninth century activity in hadīth compilation and criticism upon the subsequent centuries of Islamic civilization, as well as provide a solid reference point from which researchers can, in the future, develop their own theories concerning the development of this rich tradition.

CHAPTER THREE

III.2 Phase 1: Origins of hadīth (c. 1-140/622-757)

The founders of Sunnī hadīth literature are located among the generation of the authoritative sahāba and the three tabagāt of tābi'ūn. The sahāba and their roles in hadāth transmission are discussed in great detail in chapters six and eight of this book, and so it is sufficient to recall here that al-Dhahabī singles out Abū Hurayra in al-Mūgiza and only twenty-three people in Tadhkirat al-huffāz for special attention. He also appears to have whole-heartedly embraced Ibn Ḥibbān's tripartite division of the $t\bar{a}bi'\bar{u}n$, and is not particularly concerned with them in the Tadhkira.² Abū Hurayra's son-in-law,

Sa'īd b. al-Musayyab, of Medina, and al-Hasan al-Basrī are elevated among the masses of tābi'ūn listed over two pages of the Tadhkira at the end of the third tabaga.3 These first three tabagāt of scholars lived under the expansionist Umayvad rulers whom al-Dhahabī describes very favorably, although he does criticize the oppressive regime of al-Hajjāj (ruled 75-95/694-714) in Iraq.4

The members of the fourth tabaga in Tadhkirat al-huffāz were the final generation of scholars to have witnessed or studied with the sahāba. Most of them lived through the 'Abbāsid revolution, and, as al-Dhahabī reminds us, the dawn of innovative religious ideas regarding free will and the nature of God.5 Two of the four Shuyūkh al-Islām of this tabaga, the ascetic Muhammad b. al-Munkadir (d. 130/ 747-8) and the qādī Yahyā b. Sa'īd al-Anṣārī (d. 143/760),6 flourished in Medina, which also happened to be the educational center for the Umayyad court scholar Ibn Shihāb al-Zuhrī (d. 124/742).7 These

² The second tabaga has only 42 entries, the third tabaga consists of merely 30 men, and the fourth tabaga has 58. Despite these small numbers, a remarkably high percentage of these transmitters contributed material to all of the 'six Sunnī hadīth books' according to al Dhahabī. Examples of these indispensable men from the second tabaga include the Kufans 'Algama b. Qays, Masrūg b. al-Ajda', 'Abdīda b. 'Amr, al-Aswad b. Yazīd, Suwayd b. Ghafala, Zirr b. Hubaysh, 'Abd al-Raḥmān b, Abī Laylā (father of the famous judge Ibn Abī Laylā), Abū 'Abd al-Rahmān al-Sulamī, and Abū Wā'il; the Syrians Umm al-Dardā', Abū Idrīs al-Khawlānī, and Qabīsa b. Dhu'ayb (originally from Medina); the Basrans Abū l-'Āliya l-Riyāhī, Abū 'Uthmān al-Nahdī, and Abū Rajā' al-'Utāridī; and the Medinans 'Urwa b. al-Zubayr, Abū Salama b. 'Abd al-Rahmān, and Abū Bakr b. 'Abd al-Rahmān b. al-Hārith; Tadhkira, I, 39-54. All thirty men of the fourth tabaga passed on hadīth that were included in each of the 'six books'. Examples of master scholars from this generation include Abū l-Sha'thā' and Abū Qilāba of Basra; Ibrāhīm al-Nakha'ī, Sa'īd b. Jubayr, and al-Sha'bī of Kufa; 'Alī b. al-Husayn Zayn al-'Ābidīn, 'Ubayd

Allālı b. 'Abdullālı b. 'Utba, Sālim b. 'Abdullālı b. 'Umar, 'Ikrima, and al-Qāsim b. Muhammad of Medina; Mujāhid b. Jabr, 'Atā' b. Abī Rabāh, and Ibn Abī Mulayka of Mecca; Tāwūs and Wahb b. Munabbih of Yemen; Abū l-Khayr of Egypt; Khālid b. Ma'dān of Ḥims; Maymūn b. Mihrān of Raqqa; and 'Abdullāh b. Burayda of Marw; Tadhkira, I, 57-78.

³ Tadhkira, I, 79-81. The relatively limited roles of Sa'īd b. al-Musayyab and al-Hasan al-Basrī in hadīth scholarship is discussed below in chapter eight; their brief entries can be found in the Tadhkira, I, 44 and 57.

Tadhkira, I, 56. It is remarkable that no mention is made of either the first or second fitnas in this sketch; rather, the conquests under al-Walid, as well as 'Umar b. 'Abd al-'Azīz's retreat from Constantinople, are praised. The importance of the first fitna is discussed below in chapter VI.2.

Al-Dhahabī explicitly mentions the following five 'innovators': the two founders of the Mu'tazila, 'Amr b. 'Ubayd (d. 144/761) and Wāsil b. 'Atā' (d. 131/748), who were former students of al-Hasan al-Basrī; Iahm b. Safwan (d. 128/746). founder of ta'tīl, or the divesture of God of His attributes; and Mugātil b. Sulaymān (d. 150/767), the famous Qur'anic exegete from Balkh who was accused of anthropomorphism; Tadhkira, I, 119-20.

⁶ Yahyā l-Anṣārī is counted by Sufyān al-Thawrī as one of the 'four huffāz' of his generation: Tadhkira, I, 104 (the other three huffaz are Ismā'īl b. Abī Khālid, 'Āsim al-Ahwal, and 'Abd al-Malik b. Abī Sulaymān; ibid., I, 113). His teachers include the sahābī Anas b. Mālik, Sa'īd b. al-Musayyab, and al-Oāsim b. Muhammad, while his pupils include Shu'ba, Mālik, Ibn al-Mubārak, and Yahyā l-Qattān.

⁷ Tadhkira, I, 95 (Muhammad b, al-Munkadir) and 83 (al-Zuhrī), Al-Zuhrī was brought to the capital in Syria by 'Abd al-Malik and served the royal family in various capacities until his death during the reign of Hishām; see Michael Lecker, "Biographical Notes on Ibn Shihāb al-Zuhrī," Journal of Semitic Studies 41 (1996), 21-63. Al-Dhahabī reports that al-Zuhrī's four majors sources (buhūr) were 'Urwa b. al-Zubayr, Sa'īd b. al-Musayyab, Abū Salama b. 'Abd al-Rahmān, and 'Ubayd Allāh b. 'Abdullāh b. 'Utba; Tadhkira, I, 51. See below, chapter eight, for more details about these men who are usually counted among the "seven jurists of Medina." It is intriguing that al-Dhahabī does not consider al-Zuhrī a Shavkh al-Islām.

former two scholars studied with saḥāba such as Abū Hurayra, Anas b. Mālik, and Ibn 'Abbās, and their students include several of the Shuyūkh al-Islām of the fifth tabaqa, such as Shu'ba, Sufyān al-Thawrī, and Mālik b. Anas. Al-Zuhrī studied with the saḥāba who were young during the lifetime of the Prophet, such as Ibn 'Umar and Anas, and senior tābi'ūn like Sa'īd b. al-Musayyab. His students include major scholars of the fifth tabaqa, like al-Awzā'ī, al-Layth b. Sa'd, and Mālik, as well as the sixth tabaqa ḥadīth master Sufyān b. 'Uvavna."

The other major center of religious knowledge at this time, Iraq, enjoyed the erudition of the famous Qur'ān reciter and hadīth transmitter, al-A'mash (d. 148/765), in Kufa, and the hadīth scholars Sulaymān al-Taymī (d. 143/760) and Ibn 'Awn (d. 151/768) in Basra. Al-A'mash saw Anas b. Mālik and heard hadīth from the last living sahābī in Kufa, Ibn Abī Awfā (d. 86/705), in addition to important Kufan tābi'ān, such as Abū Wā'il (d. around 100/718), Zirr b. Hubaysh (d. 81-3/700-3), and Ibrāhīm al-Nakha'ī (d. 95/714). His students include Sufyān al-Thawrī and Sufyān b. 'Uyayna, as well as the master Kufan scholars of hadīth like Wakī' b. al-Jarrāḥ and Abū Nu'aym al-Faḍl b. Dukayn. Sulaymān al-Taymī also studied with the long-lived Anas b. Mālik, as well as the Shaykh al-Islām al-Ḥasan al-Baṣrī, and his students include Shu'ba, the two Sufyāns,

Ibn al-Mubārak and the master hadīth scholar of Wāsit, Yazīd b. Hārūn. Ibn 'Awn's status as a tābi'ī is somewhat tenuous, as al-Dhahabī does not list any saḥāba among his teachers; he did, however, study with preeminent tābi'un of Iraq, such as Abū Wā'il, Ibrāhīm al-Nakha'ī, and al-Sha'bī, as well as the famous Meccan pupil of Ibn 'Abbās, Mujāhid b. Jabr. 12 His pupils include Yazīd b. Hārūn and Shu'ba, the latter of whom claimed "I never saw anyone equal to Ayyūb [al-Sakhtiyānī], Ibn 'Awn, and Yūnus [b. 'Ubayd]."13

One final transformation that occurred at the end of Phase I during this fourth *tabaqa* and is articulated by al-Dhahabī is the transfer of knowledge from memory to books. He says: "Prior to this time, the knowledge of the *sahāba* and *tābī'ūn* was in the hearts, as they were storehouses of knowledge for them (May Allāh be pleased with them)." The impact of this transformation was felt almost immediately in the disciplines of *hadīth* compilation and can be seen to have ushered in a new era in our periodization of its history.

III.3 Phase 2: Early Compilation and Criticism (c. 140-200/757-815)

The second phase of the history of <code>hadīth</code> scholarship enjoys the highest number of Shuyūkh al-Islām in <code>Tadhkirat al-huffāz</code>, as well as some of the most important Qur'ān reciters, jurists, and historians (<code>akhbārīs</code>). Three of the five Shuyūkh al-Islām of the fifth <code>tabaqa—al-Awzā'ī</code>, Sufyān al-Thawrī, and Mālik b. Anas—inspired schools of Islamic law (<code>madhāhib</code>), and the latter's famous text, <code>al-Muwaṭta'</code>, continues to

^{*} Abū Dāwūd puts the number of reports transmitted by al-Zuhrī at 2200, half of which were hadīth: Tadhkira. I, 83. Al-Dhahabī quotes Ibn Ḥanbal's opinion that the Zuhrī material transmitted by the Syrian Shu'ayb b. Abī Ḥamza (d. 163/779-80) was superior to that of his two contemporaries 'Uqayl b. Khālid (d. 144/761) and Yūnus b. Yazīd al-Aylī (d. 152/769); Tadhkira I, 162-3 (Shu'ayb), 121 ('Uqayl), and 122 (Yūnus). He adds that Shu'ayb wrote down al-Zuhrī's dictations (imlā') in an elegant script for the caliph Hishām b. 'Abd al-Malik. Al-Bukhārī acquired some 200 Zuhrī hadīth from Shu'ayb's pupil Abū l-Yamān al-Ḥakam b. Nāfi' (d. 221/836) in Ḥimṣ; Sezgin, Buhārī'nin Kaynaklari (Istanbul: Ibrahim Horoz Basimevi, 1956), 241 (#108). For al-Dhahabī's opinion of Abū l-Yamān, see Tadhkira, I, 301 (tabaqa 7).

⁹ Tadhkira, I, 116 ed-A'mash), 113 (Sulaymān al-Taymī), 117 (Ibn 'Awn). Two other major scholars of this *tabaqa* who lived in neither Medina nor Iraq are 'Amr b. Dīnār of Mecca and Yaḥyā b. Abī Kathīr of Yamāma; *ibid.*, I, 85 and 96, respectively. Special mention must also be made of the prolific Medinan Hishām b. 'Urwa who settled late in life in Baghdad and whom Ibn Ma'īn declared equal in stature with al-Zuhrī; *ibid.*, I, 108-9.

¹⁰ Tadhkira, I, 48 (Abū Wā'il), 46 (Zirr), 59 (Ibrāhīm).

^{11 &#}x27;Alī al-Madīnī puts the number of al-A'mash's hadīth at 1300; Tadhkira, I, 116. For Wakī', see ibid., II, 223; for Abū Nu'aym, see ibid., II, 273. Other major Kufan scholars of the fourth tabaqa of Tadhkirat al-huffāz are Abū Ishāq al-Sabī'ī, the 'Shaykh al-Kūfa' al-Ḥakam b. 'Utayba, and Manṣūr b. al-Mu'tamir; ibid., I, 86-7, 88-9, and 107.

¹² Tadhkira, I, 71 (Mujāhid).

¹³ Tadıkira, I, 117–8. These latter two scholars were pupils of al-Hasan al-Başırı and Muḥammad b. Sīrīn. Al-Dhahabī evaluates Ayyūb b. Abī Tamīma al-Sakhtiyānī as Imām and Yūnus b. 'Ubayd al-'Abdī as Imām, hujja; ibid., I, 98 and 109. 'Alī b. al-Madīnī estimates the number of hadīth transmitted by Ayyūb at 800; ibid., I, 98. Another significant Basran hāfiz of the fourth tabaqa is Qatāda b. Di'āma; ibid., I, 92–3.

wa innamā kāna qabla dhālika 'ilmu l-ṣahābati wa l-tābi'īna fī l-ṣudūrī fa-hiya kānat khazā'ina l-'ilmi lahum, radiya Allāhu 'anlum; Tadhkira, I, 120. The survival of Muqātil b. Sulaymān's tafsīr and the Sīra of Ibn Isḥāq seem to support al-Dhahabī's assertion. See also al-Tirmidhī's observation that the earliest compilations (taṣnīf) were by the students of the scholars of this phase, such as Hishām b. Ḥassān (d. 148/765), Ibn Jurayj, Sa'īd b. Abī 'Arūba, Mālik, Ḥammād b. Salama, Ibn al-Mubārak, Yaḥyā b. Abī Zā'ida, Wakī' and Ibn Mahdī; al-Tirmidhī, al-Jāmī' al-ṣahīḥ wa huwa Sunan al-Tirmidhī, V (Beirut: Dār Iḥyā' al-Turāth al-'Arabī, no date), 738.

be venerated by Sunnī scholars of all schools of law to this day. ¹⁵ The remaining two Shuyūkh al-Islām, Shu'ba and Ḥammād b. Salama, cemented Basra's reputation as a major hadīth center and transmitted thousands of hadīth that can be found in all of the major Sunnī collections. ¹⁶ Egypt's first significant hadīth scholar, al-Layth b. Sa'd (d. 175/791), flourished at this time, as did the master of analogical reasoning and eponym of a madhhab, Abū Ḥanīfa (d. 150/767). in Kufa. ¹⁷ This generation coincided with the early florescence of the 'Abbāsid caliphate, although the new capital Baghdad did not have a dominant role in the venture of hadīth transmission until the next, third phase.

Al-Dhahabī reminds us in *Tadhkirat al-ḥuffāz* that the middle *tabaqa* of this phase includes scholars who witnessed the destructive Amīn-Ma'mūn civil war (the fourth *fitna*), as well as the phenomenal rise of speculative theology (*kalām*), and the Arabization of Greek philosophy. Bespite the rapid spread of the 'cancer' of speculation, more Shuyūkh al-Islām are identified in this *tabaqa* than in any other. Mecca was graced with the towering figures of Sufyān b. 'Uyayna (d. 198/813) and al-Fuḍayl b. 'Iyāḍ (d. 187/803) from Khurāsān. Bakr b. 'Ayyāsh (d. 193/809) taught in Kufa, and Yazīd b. Hārūn (d. 206/821) transmitted large amounts of *hadīth* in nearby Wāsit. The remaining two Shuyūkh al-Islām, Abū Isḥāq al-Fazārī (d. 185/801) and Ibn al-Mubārak (d. 181/797), settled in the frontier city of Maṣṣīṣa, where they set the tone for *ḥadīth*-transmitter criticism and asceticism.

¹⁵ Al-Awzā't's books appear to be lost, although many of his opinions can be found in al-Umm of al-Shafi'ī and several of his epistles are preserved in the Taqdima of Ibn Abī Hātim. A recent study of al-Awzā'ī's legal opinions is Anke Bouzenita, 'Abdarrahman al-Auza'i: ein Rechtsgelehrter des 2. Jahrunderts d. H. und sein Beitrag zu den Siyar (Berlin, 2001). Ibn al-Nadīm mentions several books of Sufyān al-Thawrī, none of which is extant; Kītāb al-fihrist li-l-Nadīm, ed. Reza Tajaddod (Tehran, n.d.), 281. Al-Tirmidhī includes many of al-Thawri's legal opinions in his canonical Jāmi', and he identifies his source for this material as Muhammad b. Uthman al-Kufi (d. 256/870) who was a bookbinder (warrāq) for al-Thawrī's pupil 'Ubayd Allāh b. Mūsā (d. 213/828); al-Jāmi al-saḥīḥ, V, 736. (For Muḥammad b. 'Uthmān, also known as Ibn Karāma, see al-Dhahabī, Siyar, XII, 296-8; for 'Ubayd Allāh, see Tadhkira, I, 259.) Other important sources for al-Thawri's legal opinions and transmitted materials include the Muşannafs of 'Abd al-Razzāq (see Motzki, The Origins of Islamic Jurisprudence, 58-62) and Ibn Abī Shayba, as well as the ikhtilāf al-fuqahā' works of Ibn al-Mundhir and al-Taḥāwī (abridged by al-Jaṣṣāṣ). Muranyi mentions that al-Thawrī's al-Jāmi' al-kabīr made it to al-Andalus via 'Alī b. Ziyād (d. 183/799) and Shajara b. 'Īsā al-Ma'āfirī of Qavrawān; Muranyi, Beiträge zur Geschichte der Hadīt- und Rechtsgelehrsamkeit der Mālikiyya in Nordafrika bis zum 5. Jh. D. H., (Wiesbaden, 1997, 9-10 and 66-7. Yasin Dutton has published a useful study of the Muwatta' called The Origins of Islamic Law (Richmond Surrey, 1999); see pp. 22-24 of his book for a description of nine recensions of this text.

For more on Shu'ba, see below chapter IV.4.2. Ḥammād b. Salama, as I mentioned earlier, is credited by al-Dhahabī (along with Sa'īd b. Abī 'Arūba), with composing the first "categorical compilations" (taṣnāf), none of which appear to have survived; Tadhkira, I, 151. Several other critically important Basran ḥadīth scholars of this tabaqa are Ḥīshām al-Dastawā'ī, Sa'īd b. Abī 'Arūba, Ma'mar b. Rāshid, Ḥammād b. Zayd, and Wuhayb b. Khālid; ibid., I, 124, 133-4, 143, 167-8, and 172-3. Major Kufans of the fifth ṭabaqa in addition to Sufyān al-Thawrī include Mis'ar b. Kidām, Zā'ida b. Qudāma, al-Ḥasan b. Ṣāliḥ, Sharīk b. 'Abdullāh, and Zuhayr b. Mu'āwiya; ibid., I, 141-2, 158, 159, 170, 171.

Tadhkira, I, 165 (al-Layth), 126 (Abū Ḥanīfa). Al-Dhahabī identifies one of al-Layth's teachers, Abū Rajā' Yazīd b. Abī Ḥabīb (d. 128/746), as the first scholar to bring religious knowledge of a legal nature (al-'ilm wa l-masā'il wa l-ḥalāl wa l-ḥarām) to Egypt, which in turn replaced the earlier hadīth that were limited to exhortations to piety (targhīb) and apocalyptic calamities at the end of time (al-malāḥim wa filan); Tadhkira, I, 97. Yazīd studied with several master scholars of the Ḥijāz, such as Sa'īd b. Abī Ḥind, 'Ikrima, Nāfi', and 'Aṭā b. Abī Rabāḥ; Siyar, VI, 10.

Tadhkira, I, 240. For a new introduction to the history of the translation movement that translated nearly the entire classical Greek corpus from Syriac into Arabic from the time of the caliph al-Manṣūr until the fourth/tenth century, see Dimitri Gutas, Greek Thought, Arabic Culture (New York, Routledge, 1998). It is somewhat puzzling as to why al-Dhahabī discusses the infamous milina in this historical sketch, since most of the scholars who were tried are located in the eighth tabaqa. Perhaps he is doing so with the hopes of indicating the perilous outcome of the study of speculative theology?

¹⁹ Tadhkira, I, 193 (Ibn 'Uyayna), 180 (al-Fuḍayl). The long-lived Ibn 'Uyayna was of Kufan origins, but lived almost his entire life in Mecca. He was one of al-Zuhrī's youngest pupils, and shared hadīth with several of his teachers, such as al-A'mash and Shu'ba. His pupils include Ibn al-Mubārak, al-Shāfi'ī, and most major scholars of the generation of Ibn Ḥanbal and Ibn Ma'īn (tabaqa 8). Al-Fuḍayl was born in Samarqand and educated in Kufa. His students include his contemporaries Ibn al-Mubārak, Yaḥyā b. Sa'īd al-Qaṭtān, and al-Qa'nabī. The quality of his hadīth was criticized by 'Abd al-Raḥmān b. Mahdī who declared him to be less than a hāfiz; ibid., I, 180. Note that both men are two of the only scholars whom al-Dhahabī lauds with the sobriquet Shaykh al-Islām in his three major works Tadhkirat al-huffāz, Siyar a'lām al-nubalā', and Tārīkh al-Islām.

²⁰ Tadhkira, I, 194 (Ibn 'Ayyāsh), 231 (Yazīd). Abū Bakr b. 'Ayyāsh has the distinction of being one of the few Qur'ān reciters to have been both a pupil and teacher of two of the seven canonical Qur'ān reciters ('Āṣim and al-Kisā'ī, respectively). He studied hadīth with major Kufan tābi'ūn, like Abū Ishāq al-Sabi'ī, and taught Ibn al-Mubārak, Abū Dāwūd al-Ṭayālisī, and Ibn Ḥanbal. Yazīd b. Hārūn's students include major eighth tabaqa compilers, such as Ibn Ḥanbal, 'Alī b. al-Madīnī, Abū Khaythama, and Ibn Abī Shayba. The strict critic Abū Ḥātim al-Rāzī declared him to be thiqa, imām; ibid., I, 232. He also is reported to have gone blind at the end of his life.

²¹ Tadhkira, I, 200 (Abū Isḥāq), 202 (Ibn al-Mubārak). Abū Isḥāq taught both Ibn al-Mubārak and al-Awzā'ī, and held classes in Damascus as well as Maṣṣṣṣa. Ibn al-Mubārak's global list of teachers and students is "immeasurable" according to al-Dhahabī, who also notes Ibn al-Mubārak's composition of books into chapters (dawwana l-ʿilma fi l-abwāb) on the topics of fiqh, warfare (ghazw), asceticism, and

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Other leading scholars of this generation include the previously mentioned master *hadīth*-transmitter critic Yaḥyā b. Sa'īd al-Qaṭṭān of Basra, and the exceptionally gifted *ḥadīth* memorizer, Wakī' b. al-Jarrāh (d. 197/813) of Kufa.²²

The continuous primacy of Iraq during the second phase can be gleaned from the list of the Shuyūkh of Islām of the seventh *tabaqa* of *Tadhkirat al-ḥuffāz*, from which one can detect a shift from Kufa to Basra during this time.²³ The master Qur'ān reciter al-Ḥusayn al-Ju'fī (d. 203/818–9) flourished in Kufa, while Basra was adorned with Abū 'Āṣim al-Ḍaḥḥāk (d. 212/827), Abū 'Abd al-Raḥmān al-Muqrī (d. 213/828), and al-Qa'nabī (d. 221/836), the latter two who lived their final years in Mecca. Al-Ḥusayn al-Ju'fī studied the Qur'ān with the canonical reader Ḥamza b. Ḥabīb (d. 156/773), and transmitted a portion of the vast reservoir of al-A'mash's and Sufyān al-Thawrī's *ḥadīth* to the likes of Ibn Ḥanbal, Ibn Ma'īn, and Ibn Rāhawayh.²⁴ Abū 'Āṣim is reported to have taught the material of Sulaymān al-Taymī and Ibn Jurayj,²⁵ among others, to Ibn Ḥanbal,

al-Dārimī, and al-Bukhārī from memory. Al-Muqrī seems to have earned his nisha from his close association with the canonical Qur'ān reciter Nāfi' b. 'Abd al-Raḥmān al-Madanī (d. 167/784), and claimed to have taught Qur'ān in Baṣra and Mecca for thirty-six and thirty-five years, respectively. Al-Qa'nabī, who was born in Medina, studied in Baṣra, and then adopted an ascetic lifestyle in Mecca. He was renowned for his unique edition of Mālik's Muwaṭṭa', which he obtained from the master directly without the interference of his reciter, Ḥabīb. Finally, the one non-Iraqi Shaykh al-Islām of this ṭabaqa, Muḥammad al-Ṣūrī al-Qalānasī (d. 215/830), was another pupil of Mālik and described by his student Ibn Ma'īn as the "Shaykh of Damascus and second to Abū Mushir (d. 218/833)."

Several other scholars of this generation merit special attention. Two more Basran scholars of particular acumen in the disciplines of *ḥadīth* transmission and criticism were 'Abd al-Raḥmān b. Mahdī (d. 198/814) and the compiler of one of the earliest *musnad* books, Abū Dāwūd al-Ṭayālisī (d. 203/819).³⁰ Ṣan'ā', the remote capital of

[&]quot;softening the heart" (raqā'iq). Note that his famous book of ascetic hadīth and reports entitled Kītāb al-zuhd has been published. Ibn al-Mubārak lived the archetypical life of the militant ascetic, and consequently found martyrdom in battle on the frontier with Byzantium.

²² Tadhkira, I, 218 (Yaḥyā), 223 (Wakī'). Yaḥyā b. Sa'īd al-Qaṭṭān studied with several Shuyūkh al-Islām, including Sulaymān al-Taymī and al-A'mash, and counted among his students Ibn Mahdī, Ibn Ḥanbal, 'Affān b. Muslim, Ibn Ma'īn, and Ibn Rāhawayh. 'Alī b. al-Madīnī praises him for his exceptional knowledge of hadīth transmitters (rijāt). Wakī' was a student of al-A'mash, Sufyān al-Thawrī, al-Awzā'ī, and Ibn 'Awn and "gave fatwas in accordance with the opinions of Abū Ḥanīfa" (yuftī bi-qawli Abī Ḥanīfa). His students include most of the Shuyūkh al-Islām of the eighth tabaqa, as well as Ibn Abī Shayba, who appears to have incorporated much of Wakī's non-extant muṣannaf in his own massive book with the same title. Despite a mastery of fiqh, Wakī' is reported to have made numerous grammatical errors and barbarisms (alhān) in his transmissions; ibid., I, 223.

²³ One of the subtle and substantial differences between the sixth and seventh tabaqāt of Tadhkirat al-huffāz is that the none of the scholars in the sixth tabaqa appears to have lived long enough to teach either al-Bukhārī or Muslim, whereas nearly thirty of al-Bukhārī's most senior teachers are found in the seventh tabaqa. Examples of these men, about whom I will have more to say in the fifth chapter, include Abū Nu'aym al-Fadl b. Dukayn, Muhammad b. Yūsuf al-Firyābī, 'Affān b. Muslim, Sulaymān b. Ḥarb, Abū Salama al-Tabūdhakī, 'Alī b. al-Ja'd, Abū Ghassān Mālik b. Ismā'īl, and Khālid b. Makhlad; Tadhkira, I, 273-4, 275, 278-9, 287-8, 289, 294, 295, and 298. Note that al-Bukhārī includes hadīth from these latter two Kufans in his Saḥīḥ despite their unabashed sympathies for 'Alī (tashayyu').

²⁴ Tadhkira, I, 255.

²⁵ 'Abd al-'Azīz b. 'Abd al-Malik b. Jurayj (d. 150/767) is called 'Faqīh al-Ḥaram' by al-Dhahabī and was a pupil of the prominent jurist 'Aṭā b. Abī Rabāḥ (d. 114/732) as well as 'Amr b. Dīnār (d. 126/744), and al-Zuhrī. He taught the two

Sufyāns, Wakī', and 'Abd al-Razzāq al-Ṣan'ānī; *Tadhkira*, I, 128. For a detailed analysis of the portions of his book preserved in 'Abd al-Razzāq's *Musannaf*, see Motzki, *The Origins of Islamic Jurisprudence*; in particular see pp. 206–44 (his sources) and 268-85 (his depiction in the classical Islamic biographical literature).

²⁶ Tadhkira, I, 268-9. His proper name is al-Dahhāk b. Makhlad.

²⁷ Tadhkira, I, 269. Al-Muqrī also studied hadīth with the Basran masters Ibn 'Awn and Shu'ba, and passed this knowledge on to al-Bukhārī, Ibn Ḥanbal, Ibn Rāhawayh, and 'Abbās al-Dūrī. Al-Dhahabī mentions that his primary educator in the discipline of figh was Abū Ḥanīſa.

Tadhkira, I, 281. Ibn Sa'd reports that Mālik would conduct his classes in his senior years by having his slave Ḥabīb recite his books to the students in attendance, and would only interrupt Ḥabīb when he made an error; al-Ṭabaqāt al-kubra, V, 289. Al-Zurqānī (d. 1122/1710) reports that Ibn Ma'īn, Ibn al-Madīnī, and al-Nasā'ī were of the opinion that the most authoritative transmitter/compiler of the Muwaṭṭa' was al-Qa'nabī, see Sharḥ al-Zurqānī 'alā Muwaṭṭa' Imām Mālik, I (Beirut: Dār al-Kutub al-'Ilmiyya, no date), 11. Al-Dhahabī includes Ibn Ma'īn's opinion that the two most reliable (athbat) recensions of the Muwaṭṭa' were those of al-Qa'nabī and the Syrian 'Abdullāh b. Yūsuf al-Kalā'ī (d. 218/833); Tadhkira, I, 296. Several recensions of the Muwaṭṭa' are discussed below in chapter five.

²⁹ Tadhkira, I, 283. Abū Mushir 'Abd al-A'lā b. Mushir al-Ghassānī al-Dimashqī was also a student of Mālik and is famous for having been violently coerced into declaring the Qur'ān to be created during the miḥna instigated by al-Ma'mūn. He died in prison after a hundred days of incarceration. Al-Dhahabī declares him to be Shaykh ahl al-Shām wa 'ālimuhum; ibid., I, 279–80.

Tadhkira, I, 241 (Ibn Mahdī), and 257 (al-Ṭayālisī). Al-Dhahabī reports Ibn Hanbal as saying that 'Abd al-Rahmān b. Mahdī was better at figh than Yaḥyā l-Qaṭṭān and more reliable (athbat) with hadīth than Wakī because he was more familiar with writing it down (aqrabu 'ahdan bi-l-kitāb). His teachers include Shu'ba and Sufyān al-Thawrī, and most major scholars of the eighth tabaqa can be found

Yemen, hosted a brief florescence of a group of *hadīth* scholars that included Ibn Jurayj, Ma'mar b. Rāshid (d. 153/770) and, very briefly, Sufyān al-Thawrī, the fruits of which have been preserved in the massive *Muṣannaf* and substantial *Tafsīr* of 'Abd al-Razzāq al-Ṣan'ānī (d. 211/826).³¹ Two of Ibn Sa'd's primary teachers, both of whom were considered weak in *hadīth* but invaluable in history (*akhbār*) and genealogy, are Hishām Ibn al-Kalbī (d. 206/822) and Muḥammad b. 'Umar al-Wāqidī (d. 207/823), and it is interesting that al-Dhahabī includes both of them in the *Tadhkira* with, of course, the caveat that their *hadīth* is not to be trusted.³² Finally, the scholar whose theories of jurisprudence left an irrevocable stamp on Islamic thought, Muḥammad b. Idrīs al-Shāfi'ī, composed his most important works in Egypt during this period and receives the unique accolade of the "Rabbi of the Community" (*hibr al-umma*) in the *Tadhkira*.³³ Although

among his pupils. Abū Dāwūd al-Tayālisī was a companion of Ibn Mahdī, and received strong praise from the critic al-Fallās. However, al-Dhahabī warns us that he made several errors when he dictated from memory. Siddīqī notes that al-Tayālisī's Musnad consists of 2,767 hadīth and argues that its actual compiler was al-Tayālisī's pupil Yūnus b. Ḥabīb (d. 267/880) of Isfahan; Hadīth Literature, 45 and al-Dhahabī, Siyar, XII, 596-7 (rawā 'an Abī Dāwūd al-Tayālisī musnadan fī muṣallad kabīr). Note that Ibn 'Adī is quoted as identifying the earliest musnad in Kufa as the work of Yaḥyā b. 'Abd al-Ḥamīd al-Ḥimānī (d. 228/843) and in Basra as the musnad of Musaddad b. Musarhad (d. 228/843); ibid., II, 8-10. See below, chapter V.2.6. for more details about these two men.

Tadhkira, I, 142 (Ma'mar b. Rāshid), 266 ('Abd al-Razzāq). Ma'mar was a student of Zuhrī and the Basran Qatāda b. Di'āma (d. 117/735; ibid., I, 92), and transmitted hadīth to major scholars such as the two Sufyāns. 'Abd al-Razzāq claims to have studied with Ma'mar for seven years and is reported to have been a proponent of moderate tashayyu' who "loved 'Alī and despised those who fought him." See the groundbreaking study of 'Abd al-Razzāq's Muṣannaf by Motzki, The Origins of Islamic Jurisprudence. Yemen more or less disappeared from the map, so to speak, of hadīth transmission and compilation after Ibn Ḥanbal, Ibn Ma'īn and other Iraqis sojourned there to obtain the Muṣannaf from 'Abd al-Razzāq and to study with his contemporary, the qāḍī of Ṣan'ā', Ḥishām b. Yūsuf (d. 197/813; Tadhkira, I, 253). I have come across only one other Yemeni in the Tadhkira—Rabī'a b. al-Ḥasan al-Ṣan'ānī (d. 609/1212-3)—although he became prominent for his work in Isfahan; ibid., IV, 124.

32 Tadhkira, I, 250 (Ibn al-Kalbī) and 254 (al-Wāqidī).

only a few major books of the master scholars of the second phase of hadīth transmission were ever composed or have survived, the massive collections of hadīth and āthār of men such as Shu'ba and Yazīd b. Hārūn served as the raw materials for the most authoritative hadīth books in Sunnī Islām that were synthesized by the scholars of the third phase.

III.4 Phase 3: The age of the "six books" (c. 200-300/815-912)

The borders that have been adopted for this phase of hadīth scholarship are indicated by al-Dhahabī himself, who limits the second volume of Tadhkirat al-huffaz to the eighth through tenth tabaqat. Two salient trends characterize this century of energetic hadīth compilation and synthesis: systematic transmitter-criticism and globalization. The former was necessary in order to distinguish the most reliable material from that which was obscure and spurious. It relied primarily upon two processes: 1) the collection of a vast quantity of hadīth in order to discern the unique, obscure, or impossible details and expressions from the core text, later called taraf (plural is atrāf); 2) an extraordinary knowledge of the approximate birth and exact death dates, teachers, students, and probity of every name found in tens of thousands of isnāds. A total lifetime's dedication to this task was a prerequisite for this awesone task, and the relatively small number of scholars who became recognized as authorities in hadith scholarship indicates the hardships this achievement involved.34

The second trend of the third phase, globalization, is a much more complex phenomenon that cannot yet be explained satisfactorily. The destabilizing events in the central lands of Islam during this time—the 'anarchy of Samarra,' Zanj revolt, and the Ṣaffārid adventures in Iraq and Khurāsān—seem to have contributed to the decline of the earlier <code>hadīth</code> centers of Basra and Kufa, and led to a consolidation of this activity in the cosmopolitan city of Baghdad. Most, if not all, great scholars, passed through Baghdad at one time or another, in order to acquire knowledge and disseminate it back home in Syria, Iran, Transoxania, or al-Andalus. The cities of Mosul, Rayy, Qazvin, Nishapur, Herat, Samarqand, Bukhara and even

Tadhkira, I, 265. It is somewhat astonishing that al-Dhahabī, a purported adherent to the Shāfiʿī madhhab, does not honor al-Shāfiʿī with the sobriquet Shaykh al-Islām. Perhaps it was his revulsion to the crass madhhab partisanship of his day that led him to do this, or else, the fact that al-Shāfiʿī was somewhat limited in his hadīth transmissions. Note al-Dhahabī's warning after praising al-Shāfiʿī's knowledge of hadīth defects ('ilal): "no [hadīth] is accepted from him except that which is reliable on his authority; had he lived longer, [the number of his hadīth] would have incresed" (lā yuqbalu minhu illā mā thabata 'anhu; wa law ṭāla 'umruhu, la-'zdāda minhu; ibid., I, 265). The topic of al-Shāfiʿī's hadīth expertise is discussed in some detail below in chapter IV.5.

³⁴ This topic is explored in great detail in the following chapter.

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Cordoba blossomed with highly erudite hadīth scholars and critics during this period. How much this global network was due to economic factors, such as trade between these major cities, or to the annual pilgrimage to Mecca, or to a religious zeal, bordering on obsession, to collect as much of this sacred material as possible, is a question that is beyond the pale of this book. All that can be said with certainty is that the diffusion of hadīth literature to the furthest corners of the Islamic world in the third/ninth century was not due to any perceivable government intervention, or, as some have suggested, the legal theories of al-Shāfi'ī, but rather must be seen as the result of a number of highly pious, erudite, and devoted individual scholars who, through their process of hadīth acquisition, composed several of the most fundamental books of Sunnī Islam.

The third phase commences with the eighth *tabaqa* of the *Tadhkira*, which is the largest one in the entire book and of particular interest for this project. The first Shaykh al-Islām hailing from Baghdad, Aḥmad b. Ḥanbal, anchors this generation, and his life and teachings inspired both a legal school and theological persuasion that bear his name. The remaining two Shuyūkh al-Islām flourished in the traditional cities of *ḥadīth* scholarship of Damascus and Kufa. Hishām b. 'Ammār (d. 245/859–60), yet another student of Mālik b. Anas, served as the *khatīb*, Qur'ān reciter, *ḥadīth*-transmitter, and *muftī* of Damascus and paṣṣed *ḥadīth* on to al-Bukhārī, Abū Dāwūd al-Sijistānī, and al-Nasā'ī. The second of these master scholars, 'Abdullāh b. Sa'īd al-Ashajj (d. 257/871), studied with Abū Bakr b. 'Ayyāsh, taught two of the Shuyūkh al-Islām of the eleventh *tabaqa*, Ibn

 35 Many members of this *tabaqa* are discussed in greater detail below in chapter V.2

Khuzayma and Ibn Abī Ḥātim, and composed, among other works, a moderately famous Qur'ānic exegesis (tafsīr). 38

The importance of this tabaqa for the art of hadīth-transmitter criticism is evidenced by the fact that it is the location of the first substantial group of authorities cited in al-Dhahabī's Mīzān al-ǐtidāl.³⁹ Ibn Ḥanbal, 'Alī b. al-Madīnī, Yaḥyā b. Ma'īn and Abū Khaythama (d. 234/848) established the primacy of Baghdad in this discipline.⁴⁰ The final member of this group, 'Amr b. 'Alī al-Fallās (d. 249/863), transmitted hadīth to all six of the canonical compilers, as well as such prominent scholars as Abū Zur'a al-Rāzī, Muḥammad b. Jarīr al-Ṭabarī, and Ibn Ṣā'id.⁴¹ Despite the fact that only 'Alī b. al-Madīnī appears to have written organized books on hadīth-transmitter criticism at this time, the students of these scholars, such as al-Bukhārī, 'Abbās al-Dūrī, and Abū Sa'īd 'Uthmān al-Dārimī, often arranged their myriad opinions into functional texts.⁴²

Four other scholars of this *tabaqa* demand mention for their influence upon Sunnī *hadīth* literature. Abū Bakr 'Abdullāh b. al-Zubayr al-Humaydī (d. 219/834) composed one of the eariest *musnads* in Mecca, and Abū Ḥātim al-Rāzī considered him the most reliable source of Ibn 'Uyayna's *hadīth*. 43 Ibn Sa'd composed *al-Ṭabaqāt al-kabīr* by

³⁹ See above, Table 2.1.

⁴¹ Tadhkira, II, 56. Al-Fallās studied with Sufyān b. 'Uyayna, among others, and was evaluated by al-Nasā'ī as thiqa, hāfiz, ṣāḥib al-hadīth. He died in Sāmarrā, and al-Dhahabī mentions that he made many trips to Isfahan.

⁴² Perhaps the best example of this practice is Abū ʿUthmān al-Dārimī's recension of the $T\bar{a}n\bar{i}kh$ of Ibn Maʿīn, in which he discusses the relative merits of the students of 11 prominent $t\bar{a}bk\bar{v}\bar{u}n$ in the first part, and then arranges the remaining 874 scholars alphabetically. This is in sharp contrast to the largest compilation of Ibn Maʿīn's opinions, the $T\bar{a}n\bar{k}h$ compiled by 'Abbās al-Dūrī, which is loosely arranged by geographical categories, but lacks any discernable internal organization. These recensions are discussed below in chapter V.4.2.

⁴³ Tadhkira, II, 3-4. The published edition of al-Ḥumaydī's Musnad edited by Ḥabīb al-Raḥmān al-A'zamī consists of 1300 hadīth in two volumes (Karachi, 1963). The organization of this Musnad is slightly different from the Musnad of Ibn Ḥanbal;

³⁶ Ibn Hanbal has attracted a fair amount of Western scholarly attention: for his school of law, see Christopher Melchert, *The Formation of the Sunnī Schools of Law*, 137–55 and Nimrod Hurvitz, *The Formation of Hanbalism* (London: Routledge Curzon, 2002); for actual legal opinions, see Susan A. Spectorsky, *Chapters on Marriage and Diworce: Responses of Ibn Hanbal and Ibn Rāhawayh* (Austin: University of Texas Press, 1993); for his theology see Madelung, "The Origins of the Controversy Concerning the Creation of the Koran" in *Orientalia hispanica: sive studia F. M. Pareja octogenarian dicta* 1: *Arabica Islamica*, ed. J. M. Barral (Leiden: Brill, 1974), 504–25. Another useful work is George Makdisi's essay "Hanbalite Islam" in *Studies on Islam*, ed. and trans. by Merlin L. Schwartz (New York: Oxford University Press, 1981), 216–52. For details of his role in *hadīth* scholarship, see below chapters V.4.3, VI.4.3, and VII.4.

³⁷ Tadhkira, II, 79.

³⁸ Tadhkira, II, 66. None of his works appears to have survived; see GAS, I, 134.

Tadhkira, II, 13 (Ibn al-Madīnī), 14 (Ibn Ma'īn), and 19 (Abū Khaythama). 'Alī b. al-Madīnī grew up in Baṣra and studied with Ḥammād b. Zayd and Sufyān b. 'Uyayna. His numerous students include al-Bukhārī, al-Dhuhlī, Abū Dāwūd, and Ismā'īl al-Qādī. Abū Ḥātim al-Rāzī described him as "a sign of the knowledge of hadīth and its defects among the people" (kāna Ibn al-Madīnī 'alaman fī l-nās fī ma'rifat al-hadīth wa l-'ilal). Ibn Ma'īn is discussed in detail below in chapters V.4.2 and VII.3. He appears to have been the most important source of hadīth transmittercriticism of his generation for the Shaykh al-Islām Ibn Abī Ḥātim. Abū Khaythama Zuhayr b. Ḥarb also studied with Ibn 'Uyayna, among others, and taught al-Bukhārī, Muslim, and Abū Dāwūd. Al-Dhahabī calls him 'the Muḥaddith of Baghdad.'

synthesizing the material of not just Ibn al-Kalbī and al-Wāqidī, but also Yazīd b. Hārūn, Wakī' b. al-Jarrāḥ, Abū Nu'aym al-Faḍl b. Dukayn, and 'Affān b. Muslim. Harā Kufan Abū Bakr Ibn Abī Shayba (d. 235/849) composed his enormous *Muṣannaf* from the material he obtained from Ibn al-Mubārak, Ibn 'Uyayna, Wakī' and scores of other men found in *Tadhkirat al-ḥuffāz*, had his students include Muslim, Abū Dāwūd, and the first Andalusī Shaykh al-Islām, Baqiyy b. Makhlad. Finally, the Marwazī 'Shaykh of the East,' Ibn Rāhawayh (d. 238/853), studied with al-Fuḍayl b. 'Iyāḍ and others, prior to settling in Nishapur. His students include all of the six canonical compilers, except Ibn Māja, and it is he whom the Sunnī tradition credits with the suggestion to a young Muḥammad b. Ismā'īl al-Bukhārī to compile a concise book consisting solely of authoritative (ṣaḥīḥ) ḥadīth. hadīth.

The transformation of Sunnī hadīth literature from a somewhat disorganized, oral-written tradition to one based upon rigorously researched and categorically organized books was completed during the ninth and tenth tabaqāt of the third phase. Al-Dhahabī identifies five Shuyūkh al-Islām, as well as several other scholars, who contributed significantly to this project. The most famous of these is Muḥammad b. Ismā'īl al-Bukhārī (d. 256/870), whose early journey

for example, the halath of female Companions are closer to the front, and the first ten entries include the 'ten promised paradise' with the curious substitution of Ibn Mas'ūd for Talha.

with his mother in the quest for knowledge brought him in contact with luminaries such as 'Affān b. Muslim in Baghdad, the Shaykh al-Islām al-Muqrī in Mecca, and Abū Mushir in Damascus. 48 Al-Bukhārī's two most important books are his Jāmi' al-ṣaḥīḥ and al-Tārīkh al-kabīr, although he composed many short books that have been preserved to this day. 49 The roster of al-Bukhārī's students includes major scholars of the tenth tabaqa such as al-Tirmidhī, Muḥammad b. Naṣr al-Marwazī, Ibn Khuzayma, Ṣāliḥ b. Muḥammad Jazara, Ibn Abī Dāwūd, Ibn Ṣā'id, Abū Ḥāmid Ibn al-Sharqī, and the primary transmitter of the Saḥīḥ, Abū 'Abdullāh Muḥammad b. Yūsuf al-Firabrī (d. 320/932). 50 Al-Bukhārī's books seem to have achieved a prestigious status from an early date, as we find many scholars of the fourth/tenth century subjecting them to rigorous analysis and meticulous transmission.

Baghdad maintained its prominence in the disciplines of hadīth erudition during the ninth tabaqa. The Shaykh al-Islām Abū Isḥāq al-Ḥarbī (d. 285/898) studied hadīth with al-Faḍl b. Dukayn and 'Affān b. Muslim, and is counted among one of Ibn Ḥanbal's finest companions in the field of fiqh. His pupils reflect his expertise in the disciplines of fiqh, hadīth, and adab, for they include the Baghdadī Ibn Ṣā'id and the master philologist Tha'lab (d. 291/904). Ismā'īl al-Qāḍī (d. 282/895), a great-great grandson of the Basran master hadīth scholar Ḥammād b. Zayd, was a master of the Mālikī madhhab and acquired the Muwatta' from the Shaykh al-Islām al-Qa'nabī. He appears to have been very interested in the disciplines of the Qur'ān, in addition to hadīth and Mālikī jurispridence, and al-Khaṭīb al-Baghdādī mentions three titles of works in this field that appear

^{**} Tadhkira, II, 11. Ibn Sa'd lists his important sources on p. 5 of volume III, of al-Tabaqāt al-kubrā, and the significance of the other listed names can be ascertained from the isnāds throughout the text. Ibn al-Nadīm's assertion in the Fibrist that Ibn Sa'd merely synthesized the writings of al-Wāqidī, [Ibn] al-Kalbī, al-Haytham b. 'Adī, and al-Madā'inī obscures the significance of the role of the master hadīth scholars in al-Ṭabaqāt al-kabīr; al-Fibrist, 112. For more details, see below, chapters V.4.1, VI.4.2. and VII.2.

¹⁵ Other prominent contributors to Ibn Abī Shayba's *Muşannaf* include the previously mentioned Affān b. Muslim and Yazīd b. Hārūn, as well as men such as Jarīr b. 'Abd al-Ḥamīd, 'Abd al-Raḥīm b. Sulaymān, Abū Mu'āwiya al-Ḍarīr, Ḥafṣ b. Ghiyāth, Abū Usāma Ḥammād b. Usāma, Ibn 'Ulayya, and Ibn Numayr, *Tadhkira*, I. 199, 213, 215, 217, 234, 235–6, 239.

⁴⁰ Tadhkira, II, 17. The 1995 uncritical Dār al-Kutub al-'Ilmiyya edition of Ibn Abī Shayba's Musannaf contains 37,930 hadīth and āthār in thirty-eight chapter (kutub). The largest chapters are devoted to prayer, sales, and pilgrimage. This text appears to be the recension transmitted by Baqiyy b. Makhlad. Two fragments of Ibn Abī Shayba's Musaad have also been published recently in Riyadh.

⁴⁷ Tahdkira, II, 18. This story is mentioned with a complete isnād at the opening of Ibn Hajar's introduction to his commentary on the Saḥāh of al-Bukhārī; see Hady al-sārī muqaddimat fath al-bārī (Beirut, 1996), 7.

Tadhkira, II, 104. Other important teachers explicitly mentioned by al-Dhahabī are Abū l-Mughīra and al-Firyābī in Syria, Ādam in 'Asqalan, and Abū l-Yamān in Ḥimṣ. Bukhārī is also purported to have memorized Ibn al-Mubārak's works as a child. For a quantitative analysis of al-Bukhārī's sources, see Sezgin, Buhârî'nin Kaynaklari, 203–304.

⁴⁹ See Hady al-sānī, 680-2. The 1996 Dār al-Fikr edition of Ibn Hajar's commentary on the Ṣaḥīḥ of al-Bukhārī entitled Fatḥ al-bārī bi-sharḥ ṣaḥīḥ al-Bukhārī includes 7563 ḥadīth and āthār with repetitions in 97 chapters. Ibn Hajar counts only 2602 ḥadīth after the consolidation of repetitions; ibid., 659-63.

⁵⁰ Al-Firabrī does not receive an entry in the *Tadhkira* but can be found in al-Dhahabī, *Siyar*, XV, 10.

⁵¹ Tadhkira, II, 123.

⁵² Tadhkira, II, 149. His full name is Abū Ishāq Ismā'īl b. Ishāq. See also Melchert, The Formation of the Sunni Schools of Law, 170-5.

to be lost.⁵³ Finally, Ahmad b. Abī Khaythama (d. 279/892) followed in his father's footsteps and composed a large history, a fragment of which recently has been published.⁵⁴ Al-Khatīb's description of his education vividly illustrates the intellectual richness of the 'Abbāsid capital during this time:55

He received his knowledge of hadīth from Ibn Hanbal and Ibn Ma'īn, of genealogy from Mus'ab [al-Zubayrī; d. 236/851], of history from 'Alī b. Muhammad al-Madā'inī (d. 224/839), and of literature (adab) from Muhammad b. Sallām al-Jumahī (d. 231/846).

A final major scholar of Baghdad whom we shall be looking at more closely in chapter five is 'Abbās al-Dūrī (d. 271/884-5), a disciple of Ibn Ma'ın, who not only synthesized the hadıth-transmitter criticism opinions of his master, but also taught all four compilers of the canonical sunan books during their individual visits to Baghdad.⁵⁶

The city of Rayv also flourished as a center of hadīth-transmitter criticism at this time due to the learning of three of its sons.⁵⁷ Abū Hātim al-Rāzī (d. 277/890), one of the critics considered by al-Dhahabī to have been 'severe' in his opinions, studied with important figures such as 'Affan and al-Fadl b. Dukayn, and had the good fortune to have a son who devoted himself to the alphabetical organization of his knowledge in the famous book al-7arh wa l-ta'dīl. 58 Abū Zur'a al-Rāzī (d. 264/878) is honored by al-Dhahabī with the sobriquet 'Hāfiz of the Age' and acquired an extraordinary volume of hadīth from al-Qa'nabī, al-Fadl b. Dukayn, Ibn Abī Shayba, and al-Fallās, among many others.⁵⁹ His students include the famous com-

54 Ibn Abī Khavthama, Akhbār al-Makkiyyīn min kitāb al-Tārīkh al-kabīr, ed. Ismā'īl Hasan Husayn (Rivadh, 1997).

Basran scholar Abū Salama al-Tabūdhakī; ibid., I, 289. For more about al-Dūrī, see below, chapter V.4.2.

Tadhkira, II. 112. Abū Hatim Muhammad b. Idrīs also taught Abū Dāwūd al-Sijistānī and al-Nasā'ī.

pilers Muslim, al-Tirmidhī, al-Nasā'ī, Ibn Māja, Ibn Abī Dāwūd, Abū 'Awāna, and Ibn Abī Hātim. The third member of this trio of master Rāzī hadīth scholars is Ibn Wāra (d. 270/883-4), a pupil of the Shaykh al-Islām Abū 'Āsim and al-Fadl b. Dukayn, as well as teacher of al-Bukhārī, al-Nasā'ī and Ibn Abī Hātim.60

Further east, the Khurāsānī city Nishapur also enjoyed a florescence of hadith scholarship in the wake of the path blazed by Ishaq Ibn Rāhawayh. The 'Hāfiz of Nishapur' and Shaykh al-Islām, Abū 'Abdullāh Muhammad b. Yahyā al-Dhuhlī (d. 258/872), devoted so much attention to the hadīth transmitted by al-Zuhrī (of the fourth tabaqa) that 'Alī b. al-Madīnī called him the "the heir (wārith) of al-Zuhrī."61 However, al-Dhuhlī managed to not only exile Bukhārī from Nishapur, but also to offend gravely Nishapur's other leading muhaddith of the time, Muslim b. al-Hajjāj (d. 261/874). This friction seems to have developed over the theological question concerning the nature of the articulation (lafz) of the Qur'an.62 Al-Dhahabī includes a report in the Tadhkira that Muslim left al-Dhuhli's session (majlis) when the latter said "Whoever believes that my articulation of the Qur'an is created, let him not attend this session!"63 Most of al-Dhulī's students do not appear to have taken this advice, as we find Ibn Khuzayma, Ibn Sā'id, Ibn Abī Hātim, and Ibn al-Sharqī among Muslim's pupils.⁶⁴ Indeed, it appears that the extraordinary popularity of the Sahīh of Muslim thoroughly vindicated the authority of its compiler.65

62 For a discussion of the doctrine of lafz, see Watt, The Formative Period of Islamic Though, 281-85.

64 Tadhkira, II, 125.

³³ Tadhkira, II, pp. 123-4. The books are Ahkām al-Qur'ān, al-Qirā'āt, and Ma'ānī al-Qur'ān. A minute fragment of his Ahkām al-Qur'ān concerning meaning of Sūra 4:34 has been published in Muranyi, Beiträge, 371-6. See also GAS, I, 475-6.

³³ Tadhkira, II, 130. Al-Dhahabī evaluates Ibn Abī Khaythama as Imām and ḥujja. ⁵⁶ Tadhkira, II, 119. Dūrī claims to have obtained 30,000 hadīth from the master

³⁷ The master Hanafi scholar al-Țaḥāwī (d. 321/933), whom we shall meet in the fourth phase, is quoted by al-Dhahabī as having identified these three men of Ravy as "unique;" thalāthat bi-l-Rayy lam yakun fi l-ardi mithluhum; Tadhkira, II, 117.

Tadhkira, II, 105. Abū Zur'a also claims to have examined 30,000 hadīth of Ibn Wahb while in Egypt; ibid., I, 222.

Tadhkira, II, 117.

⁶¹ Tadhkira, II, 87. Even Abū Ḥātim al-Rāzī called al-Dhuhlī "the Imām of the people of his time" (huwa imām ahl zamānih; ibid., II, 87) He acquired knowledge from 'Abd al-Rahmān b. Mahdī, Abū Dāwūd al-Tayālisī, and 'Abd al-Razzāq al-San'ānī. His students include the compilers of all four sunan books, Abū Zur'a al-Rāzī, Ibn al-Sharqī, and the Shaykh al-Islām of the tenth tabaga Ibn Khuzayma.

⁶³ Tadhkira, II, 125-6. Muslim's teachers include two Shuyūkh al-Islām, al-Qa'nabī and Ibn Hanbal, although he includes far more hadīth in his Sahīh from Ibn Abī Shayba, Zuhayr b. Harb, Muhammad b. al-Muthannā, Qutayba b. Sa'īd, Yaḥyā b. Yahyā al-Tamīmī, and Ibn Rāhawayh.

⁶⁵ The 2000 Dar al-Kutub al-'Ilmiyya reprint of Muhammad Fu'ad 'Abd al-Bāqī's edition of Sahīh Muslim bi-sharh al-Nawawī consists of 3033 hadīth without repetitions in 55 chapters (there are two chapter 40's in this edition). The organization of Muslim's book has proven to be particularly popular, as al-Dhahabī reports several scholars in the subsequent centuries who followed his format and substituted essentially the same hadith with more elevated isnāds (see above, II.1, for the meaning of 'elevated isnāds') in a process known as takhrīj. Already in the eleventh tabaga,

Even further east, two scholars in addition to al-Bukhārī contributed substantially to Sunnī hadīth scholarship. Since both scholars are known by their nisba al-Dārimī, it is particularly important to distinguish between them. Al-Dhahabī considers Abū Muhammad 'Abdullāh b. 'Abd al-Raḥmān al-Dārimī (d. 255/869) to be a Shaykh al-Islām, and his Musnad is included among Ibn Hajar's ten most important hadīth books after the canonical six.66 Al-Dārimī traveled from his home in Transoxania to the major hadīth centers in Khurāsān, Iraq, and Syria, and Yazīd b. Hārūn can be named among his more prominent teachers. He taught scholars such as Muslim, Abū Dāwūd, and 'Abdullah b. Ahmad b. Hanbal, prior to his return to Samargand, where he served briefly as a qādī for the Sāmānids. The second Dārimī, Abū Sa'īd 'Uthmān b. Sa'īd, a native of Herat, has been mentioned above in connection with his systematic organization of Ibn Ma'īn's hadīth-transmitter criticism opinions; he also composed a musnad that helped lay the foundation for an impressive series of hadīth scholars in Herat.67

Two final scholars of the ninth tabaga require brief notices. Abū Dāwūd Sulaymān b. al-Ash'ath al-Sijistānī (d. 275/888), compiler of the Sunan that is particularly valued for its legal reports (ahkām), stud-

ied with al-Qa'nabī and Ibn Hanbal and settled in Basra after the 'Abbāsid caliph al-Mu'tamid's brother al-Muwaffaq (d. 278/891) extinguished the destructive Zanj revolt of 255-70/869-83.68 His students include the famous compilers al-Tirmidhī, al-Nasā'ī, Abū 'Awāna, and his own son Abū Bakr. 69 Finally, a freed slave of Ibn Ḥanbal's known as al-Jūzajānī (d. 259/873), disseminated such strong anti-'Alī views in Damascus that the Shaykh al-Islām al-Nasā'ī felt obliged to compose a book in defense of the merits of 'Alī.70

The tenth tabaqa of huffaz is of capital importance because it marks the first time that al-Dhahabī identifies an Andalusī hadīth scholar as a Shaykh al-Islām. Baqiyy b. Makhlad (d. 276/889) was hardly the first serious Andalusī scholar of hadīth, but he did set a new standard of excellence with two works, al-Musnad al-kabīr and al-Tafsīr.71 Baqiyy heard the Muwatta' directly from its prime transmitter in al-Andalus, Yahyā b. Yaḥyā al-Laythī (d. 234/848) and also hauled the Musannaf of Ibn Abī Shayba back to Cordoba from Kufa. His erudition was not appreciated by many of the Andalusī jurists who were less than enthusiastic about hadīth, and it is unlikely that his teachings would have had much impact had it not been for the protection of the Amīr Muḥammad b. 'Abd al-Raḥmān (ruled 238-73/852-86). The Andalusī historian and muḥaddith Ibn al-Faraḍī (d. 403/1012-3) credits Baqiyy with having "filled al-Andalus with hadīth,"72 a consequence of which was the prominence of Iberian scholars in the fifth phase of this survey.

Four major scholars of this tabaqa either originated from or settled in the region of Transoxania. The Shaykh al-Islām Ahmad b. Shu'ayb al-Nasā'ī (d. 303/915) studied with Muhammad b. Nasr al-Marwazī and Ibn Rāhawayh in Khurāsān prior to settling in Egypt under the Tūlūnids.73 Al-Nasā'ī developed a reputation for being a particularly

we find books modeled on Muslim's Sahāh by Abū 'Awāna Ya'qūb b. Ishāq al-Asfarāvīnī (d. 316/928), Abū 'Imrān al-Juwaynī (d. 323/935) and Ibn al-Athram (d. 344/955), and in the twelfth tabaga we find Abū 'Alī al-Māsarjisī (d. 368/978) of Nishapur producing his personal versions of each of the two Sahīhs; Tadhkira, III, 3, 27, 55, and 110-1, respectively. Abū 'Awāna's book has been published and is one of the ten books included by Ibn Hajar in his 16 volume book Ithāf al-mahara bi-l-fawā'id al-mubtakara min atrāf al-'ashara (Riyadh, 1994). The remaining nine books in Ithaf al-mahara are the Sunan of al-Darimi, Sahih of Ibn Khuzayma, al-Muntaga of Ibn al-Jārūd, Ibn Bulbān al-Fārisī's (d. 739/1338-9) abridgement of the Sahīh of Ibn Hibban entitled al-Ihsan fi tagrib sahih Ibn Hibban, the Mustadrak 'ala l-sahihayn of al-Hākim al-Naysābūrī, the Muwatta' of Mālik, Abū l-'Abbās al-Asamm's (d. 346/957-8) Musnad of al-Shaffi, the Musnad of Ibn Hanbal, and Sharh mafani al-athar of al-Tahāwī. We have already encountered the books of Mālik (tahaga 6) and Ibn Hanbal (tabaga 8), and shall be introducing all of the remaining scholars, with the exceptions of al-Asamm and Ibn Bulban al-Farisi, in the remainder of this chapter.

Tadhkira, II, 90. 'Abdullāh al-Dārimī's Musnad is also called Sunan because it is arranged according to legal topics and not sahāba. See the previous footnote for more information about Ibn Hajar's Ithaf al-mahara. The 2000 Dar al-Hadīth edition of Sunan al-Dārimī has a 649-report introduction which is followed by 2854 hadīth and āthār in 23 chapters.

⁶⁷ Tadhkira, II, 146. Al-Dhahabī evaluates Abu Sa'īd as Imām, hujja and 'the Muhaddith of Herat.' This Darimi also composed a theological tract that has been published as Radd al-imām al-Dārimī 'alā Bishr al-Marīsī al-'anīd.

⁶⁸ Tadhkira, II, 127; for the Zanj revolt, see Hugh Kennedy, The Prophet and the Age of the Caliphates (New York: Longman, 1986), 179-81. The 1997 Dar Ibn Hazm edition of Sunan Abī Dāwūd contains 5274 hadīth in 35 chapters. Note that 22% of the hadith in this book are found in the single chapter devoted to prayer (salāt).

⁶⁹ Tadhkira, II, 127.

⁷⁰ Tadhkira, II, 195.

⁷¹ Tadhkira, II, 151. Al-Dhahabī reports Ibn Ḥazm's praise of Baqiyy's tafsīr in this entry. Neither book appears to have survived; GAS, I, 152-3.

⁷² Tadhkira, II, 152. Ibn al-Faradī's entry can be found in the thirteenth tabaqa; ibid, III, 185.

⁷³ Tadhkira, II, 194. His students include al-Dūlābī, al-Ṭabarānī, and Ibn al-Sunnī, the latter of whom is reported to have selected the soundest hadīth from al-Nasā'ī's

harsh hadīth-transmitter critic, and al-Dhahabī quotes the Meccan scholar al-Zanjānī's statement that his conditions for reliability were even stricter than those of al-Bukhārī and Muslim.74 A student who traveled in the opposite direction from al-Nasa'ī and settled in Bukhara is the 'Shaykh of Transoxania,' Abū 'Alī Ṣāliḥ b. Muḥammad Jazara (d. 293/906). Jazara was famous for his exceptional memory, and transmitted the knowledge he obtained from Ibn Ma'īn and Ibn Hanbal after the death of al-Bukhārī, this region's most illustrious scholar.

CHAPTER THREE

The two remaining Transoxanian scholars of the tenth tabaga who returned home after their studies are the Shaykh al-Islām Muhammad b. Nasr al-Marwazī and Abū 'Īsā al-Tirmidhī. Muhammad b. Nasr was particularly famous as a jurist, although he studied hadīth with the great Nishapurian Ibn Rāhawayh, among others.75 He entered into the service of the Sāmānids at their capital in Samarqand in 275/888, and his reputation as a master scholar was so great that even the brilliant nonconformist Ibn Hazm praised him a century and a half later all the way from al-Andalus.76 The final Central Asian scholar of this period, Abū 'Īsā al-Tirmidhī (d. 279/892), was a close disciple of al-Bukhārī, acquired fame as the compiler of a canonical Sunan work, a book of 'ilal, and a book of the Prophet Muhammad's ethics.77

Kītāb al-sunan al-kabīr and compiled them under the title Kītāb al-sunan al-muitabā. This latter title is considered to be among the six canonical Sunnī hadīth books. The 1995 Dar al-Fikr edition of Sunan al-Nasa'ī al-musammā bi-l-muitabā bi-sharh alhāfiz Jalāl al-Dīn al-Suyūţī wa hāshiyat al-Imām al-Sindī contains 5769 hadīth in 52 chapters.

Three scholars continued the strong tradition of Iranian hadīth scholarship throughout the tenth tabaga. The most prominent of them, and a particular favorite of al-Dhahabī, is Abū Bakr Muhammad b. Ishāq b. Khuzayma (d. 311/923) of Nishapur.78 A student of al-Bukhārī, al-Dhuhlī, and Muslim, Ibn Khuzayma composed both a Sahīh collection that is included among Ibn Hajar's 'ten books,' and a significant hadīth-based theological book called al-Tawhīd.⁷⁹ The reason for this latter theological book was more than mere intellectual curiosity, as Ibn Khuzayma was attacked by many of the Kullābiyya of his day.80 It is quite clear from the Tadhkira that his uncompromising anti-kalām polemic resonated strongly with al-Dhahabī's salafī sensitivities.

Two other scholars of Iranian cities had a more modest impact on Sunnī hadīth tradition than Ibn Khuzayma. Abū Bishr al-Dūlābī (d. 310/923) was an important hadith-transmitter critic in Rayy who helped educate the most famous scholars of the eleventh tabaga, like Ibn Abī Hātim, Ibn 'Adī, Ibn Hibbān, and al-Tabarānī.81 His prosopographical book al-Asmā' wa l-kunā preserves a great many opinions of the master critic of some interest for this book, Ibn Ma'īn. Abū 'Abdullāh Ibn Māja (d. 273/886) hailed from the city of Qazvin, and his Sunan ultimately achieved the elevated status of the sixth of the six canonical Sunnī hadīth books.82 Ibn Māja also composed a

⁷⁴ Tadhkira, II, 195.

⁷⁵ Tadhkira, II, 165-6; The Formation of the Sunni Schools of Law, 99. His succinct book on the differences of the jurists (ikhtilāf al-fugahā') has been published by Subhī al-Sāmarrā'ī as Ikhtilāf al-'ulamā' (Beirut: 'Alam al-Kutub, 1986). It is striking that al-Marwazī refers to over twenty-five jurists by their names, such as Abū Thawr, Ibn Hanbal, and even Hammad b. Abī Sulayman, and yet consistently employs the term aṣḥāb al-ra'y instead of Abū Ḥanīfa, Muhammad b. al-Ḥasan al-Shaybānī, or Abū Yūsuf. See below, in chapter eight, for the significance of this observation in the discussion of the problem of the authority of Abū Hanīfa in the eyes of the hadīth scholars.

⁷⁶ Tadhkira, II, 165.

Tadhkira, II, 154. Note that al-Dhahabī does not mention the third work, al-Shamā'il in his notice. The Dār Ihyā l-Turāth al-'Arabī edition of al-Jāmi' al-Sahāh wa huwa Sunan al-Tirmidhi that was initiated under the editorial guidance of Ahmad Muḥammad Shākir (volumes I-II), continued by Muhammad Fu'ād 'Abd al-Bāgī (volume III), and completed without takhrīj or commentary by Ibrāhīm 'Atwa 'Awd (volumes IV-V) consists of 3956 hadith in fifty chapters, plus a final chapter on

hadīth-transmitter criticism and methodology. Two significant unique features of al-Tirmidhī's book are: 1) the regular inclusion of the legal opinions of Sufyan al-Thawrī, Mālik, Ibn al-Mubārak, al-Shāfi'ī, Ibn Hanbal, Ibn Rāhawayh, the "People of Kufa" (Abū Hanīfa and his disciples), and many sahāba; 2) the evaluation of the authenticity of each hadith in the collection, often with useful notes about names of transmitters and variant versions of the text and isnād. Many of these notes come from his teacher al-Bukhārī.

⁷th Tadhkira, II, 207; The Formative Period of Islamic Thought, 297.

The published edition of Ibn Khuzayma's Sahīh is based on a unique incomplete manuscript and consists of 3079 hadīth that cover the topics of prayer, fasting, and pilgrimage; Sahīh Ibn Khuzayma, ed. M. M. al-A'zamī (Beirut: al-Maktab al-Islāmī, n.d.).

⁸⁰¹ The Kullābiyya seem to be the precursors to the Ash'arīs; see Maqālāt al-Islāmiyyīn, II, 225-28 for a description of some of their theological beliefs.

II Tadhkira, II, 230.

⁸² Tadhkira, II, 155. As we noted in the introduction, Goldziher astutely identified the Zāhirī Ibn Tāhir al-Maqdisī of the fifteenth tabaqa of Tadhkirat al-huffāz (IV, 27-30) as the first scholar to include Ibn Māja along with the other five books; Muslim Studies, II, 240 (this view is seconded by Siddiqi in Hadith Literature, 73). We also saw, in the previous chapter, that Ibn al-Salāh did not recognize Ibn Māja's Sunan as the same rank of the other five books. The 1983 Riyadh edition of Sunan Ibn Māja edited by M. M. al-A'zamī contains 4397 hadīth.

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 $tafs\bar{i}r$ and a history, both of which appear to have been lost since al-Dhahabī's day.⁸³

Baghdad retained its eminence during the tenth tabaga due to the labors of several scholars. Ibn Hanbal's son 'Abdullāh (d. 290/903) distinguished himself as the sole transmitter of the 30,000-hadīth Musnad, a supposed 120,000-hadīth Qur'ānic exegesis, and thousands of 'ilal reports from his illustrious father. 84 Another son of a famous hadīth scholar of this time was Abū Bakr Ibn Abī Dāwūd al-Sijistānī (d. 316/929), who composed his own Musnad and Sunan books. 85 Ibn Abī Dāwūd appears to have developed a guarrel with his father, as well as with one of the most prominent scholars of Baghdad, Ibn Sā'id (d. 318/930).86 Al-Dhahabī reports that the Shaykh of Nishapur, Abū 'Alī al-Navsābūrī, declared that Ibn Şā'id possessed a superior comprehension of hadīth to his rival Ibn Abī Dāwūd, even if the latter had memorized a larger amount of the material. The work of these four scholars not only systematized the erudition of the luminaries of the preceding two tabagāt, but can be seen as the catalysts for the climactic period of Baghdadī hadīth scholarship in the fourth phase that is approaching rapidly.

Two final scholars deserve mention for their majestic literary contributions to Sunnī hadīth literature and Islamic civilization in general.⁸⁷ Abū Ya'lā Aḥmad b. 'Alī al-Mawṣilī (d. 307/919–20) helped establish the tradition of hadīth scholarship in the province of northern Iraq (al-Jazīrā), and he composed a large mu'jam of his teachers, in addition to his 7555-ḥadīth Musnad.⁸⁸ His student Ibn Ḥibbān

88 Tadhkira, II, 199. The mujam book was a compilation in which a single hadith

praised him for his reliability and precision, and two of his other students, Abū 'Alī al-Naysābūrī and Abū Bakr al-Ismā'īlī contributed greatly to the fourth-century florescence of hadīth scholarship in Iran. The final scholar of the tenth tabaga of unique erudition is the historian, Qur'anic exegete, and jurist Abū Ja'far Muhammad b. Jarīr al-Tabarī (d. 310/923).89 Al-Dhahabī commented that "had I wished, I could have written twenty pages about the life of this imām" and al-Khatīb al-Baghdādī, no stranger to literary composition, claimed that al-Tabarī "gathered diverse types of knowledge that none of his age had ever synthesized."90 Despite the fact that some Hanbalīs made life very unpleasant for al-Tabarī, Ibn Khuzayma reports that they wronged him and that he knew of no one more knowledgeable than him.91 While al-Tabarī did not live to complete his ambitious hadīth book Tahdhīb al-āthār, 92 his tafsīr, Jāmi' al-bayān fī tafsīr āy al-Qur'ān, contains a vast array of hadīth and āthār, and, according to al-Suyūtī, has never been surpassed in its genre.93

⁸³ GAS, I, 147-8.

⁸⁴ Tadhkira, II, 173. Melchert cites al-Dhahabī's serious doubts in the Siyar that a 120,000-hadīth tafsīr existed; The Formation of the Sunni Schools of Law, 153.

⁸⁵ Tadhkira, II, 235. Al-Dhahabī praises Ibn Abī Dāwūd as the "exemplar (qudwa) of the muhaddithūn," and his students include al-Dāraquṭnī, Ibn Shāhīn, and Abū Ahmad al-Hākim al-Naysābūrī.

⁸⁶ Tadhkira, II, 240. One of Ibn Ṣāʿid's most prominent students was al-Dāraquṭnī.

⁸⁷ Four other important compilers of the tenth tabaqa of the Tadhkirat al-huffāz whose names can be mentioned only in passing are: 1) Abū Bakr Ahmad b. 'Amr al-Bazzār (d. 292/905 in Ramla), whose Musnad has been published; 2) Qādī Ibrāhīm b. Ma'qil al-Nasafī (d. 295/908), a major transmitter of al-Bukhārī's Ṣaḥīḥ, as well as a compiler of his own musnad and tafsīr; 3) al-Hasan b. Sufyān (d. 303/915 near Nasā), the 'Shaykh of Khurāsān' who transmitted the works of Ibn Abī Shayba, Ibn Rāhawayh and Abū Thawr, and composed a large musnad and collection of 'forty hadīth' of his own; and 4) Abū Bakr al-Rūyānī (d. 307/919), whose short musnad has been published; Tadhkira, II, 166-7, 186, 197-8, and 226, respectively.

with an elevated isnād from each of the student's teachers was arranged alphabetically. These books became increasingly popular in the later phases of hadīth transmission.

¹⁸⁹ See Franz Rosenthal's *The History of al-Tabarī*, I: General Introduction and From the Creation to the Flood (Albany: SUNY Press, 1989), 5–133 and Claude Gilliot, Exégése, Langue, et Théologue en Islam: L'Exégése Coranique de Tabari (Paris: J. Vrin, 1990), 19–68 for detailed expositions of al-Tabarī's life and works.

⁷⁰ Tadhkira, İI, 201-2. Al-Dhahabī's quote: law ashā'u la-katabtu 'ishrīna waraqatan min sīrati hādhā l-imām; al-Khaṭīb's statement: jama'a min al-'ulūm mā lam yushārikhu fihi ahad min ahl 'asrih.

⁹¹ Tadhkira, II, 202.

This book is described by Rosenthal, who mentions that the preserved fragments of the *musnads* of 'Alī and Ibn 'Abbās have been published in three volumes by Maḥmūd Shākir (1982) and that the *musnad* of 'Umar b. al-Khaṭṭāb remains to be published; Rosenthal, *General Introduction*, 128–30.

Al-Suyūţī, al-Itqān fī 'ulūm al-Qur'ān, II (Beirut: Dār Ibn Kathīr, 1996), 1237. He quotes al-Nawawī as saying kitāb Ibn Jarīr fi l-tafsīr lam yusannif ahadun mithlahu. Note that Herbert Berg's recent study of this tafsīr, or, to be more precise, his study of 997 reports transmitted on the authority of Ibn 'Abbas, led him to the sweeping conclusions that "it may well be that the mythic status of Ibn 'Abbas actually preceded any attribution of exegetical material to him" and that "as to when [Ibn 'Abbās'] material was actually produced and when the isnads were attached, a determination is impossible from the data of my study;" Berg, The Development of Exegesis in Early Islam, 214-15. Since many of Ibn 'Abbas's principle students died around 100/718 and al-Tabarī began dictating "a substantial portion" of his tafsīr in 270/883 in Baghdad (Rosenthal, General Introduction, 106), there does not seem to be more than a 150-year window during which the material could have possibly come into circulation. A more promising piece of research is the isnād analysis found in Heribert Horst: "Zur Überlieferung im Korankommentar at-Tabarīs," ZDMG 103 (1953), 290-307. Horst's investigation uncovers several isnāds that are cited so frequently that they most likely indicate early books which al-Tabarī synthesized in his tafsīr.

A brief review of the literary accomplishment of the third phase of hadīth scholars is in order prior to the discussion of the even more extraordinary fourth period. In addition to the composition of the six most revered Sunnī hadīth books of al-Bukhārī, Muslim, Abū Dāwūd, al-Tirmidhī, al-Nasā'ī, and Ibn Māja, there appeared the Sunan of al-Dārimī, the Musnad of Ibn Hanbal/'Abdullāh b. Ahmad, the Musnad of Abū Ya'lā al-Mawsilī, the Sahīh of Ibn Khuzayma, the Musannaf of Ibn Abī Shayba, and the tafsīr of al-Tabarī. The compilation of the first historical-critical book of the tabagāt genre by Ibn Sa'd took place during this time, along with the most authoritative book of hadīth-transmitter criticism, al-Tārīkh al-kabīr of al-Bukhārī, multiple recensions of Ibn Ma'īn's critical opinions, and al-Dūlābī's book of names and kunyas. Finally, two works of general hadīth defects ('ilal) also arrived on the scene, namely those of Ibn Hanbal/Abdullāh b. Ahmad and al-Tirmidhī. This list only consists of significant works that have survived to this day in the Sunnī tradition, and the collective mass of these books provided a secure foundation for the following two phases of intense compilation and criticism.

III.5 Phase 4: The triumph of Baghdad and Iran (c. 300-400/912-1009)

The achievements in the disciplines of hadīth, in general, and Sunnī hadīth-transmitter criticism, in particular, are so remarkable in the fourth and fifth phases of this narrative, that one could question Hodgson's description of this period as the "Shī'ī century." Indeed, the pro-Shī'ī Daylamite Buyids and their courtier princes appear to have done little to hinder the remarkable scholarly activity in the arts of Sunnī hadīth compilation and criticism, which flourished throughout this period in Baghdad and the great cities of Iran. Some

light will be shed as well on the situation in al-Andalus and Egypt during this time, as the former experienced a florescence and the latter a period of severe repression during the following phase of hadīth literature.

Eight late third/early fourth (ninth/tenth) century scholars who flourished in Baghdad demand our immediate attention. The Shāfiʿī master jurist, Shaykh al-Islām, and "renewer (mujaddid) of religion" Abū l-ʿAbbās Ibn Surayj (d. 306/918) acquired an elevated proficiency in hadīth disciplines from 'Abbās al-Dūrī and Abū Dāwūd al-Sijistānī. Hanbalī madhhab, Abū Bakr Aḥmad b. Muḥammad, known as al-Khallāl (d. 311/923). His Kītāb al-sunna has survived and al-Dhahabī credits him with the systematic organization the religious knowledge of Ibn Ḥanbal. A final major jurist of the first half of the fourth/tenth century who invested much time in hadīth studies was the 'Shaykh of Baghdād' al-Qādī al-Ḥusayn b. Ismāʿīl al-Maḥāmilī (d. 330/942). He served in the capacity of judge for some sixty years in Kufa and al-Dhahabī counts al-Dāraquṭnī among his pupils.

Baghdad nurtured another four master hadīth scholars during the twelfth tabaqa. Abū Bakr Muḥammad b. al-Ḥusyan al-Ājurrī (d. 360/971) composed a theological book of hadīth titled Kītāb al-sharī a fī l-sunna and his knowledge disseminated throughout the Islamic world due to his prolonged stay in Mecca at the end of his life. 99 The Shaykh al-Islām Ibn Mihrān (d. 375/985–6) studied with his fellow tenth tabaqa Baghdādī Ibn Ṣāʿid, composed a large musnad, and lived

the most prominent example is the material of Qatāda that is transmitted by Sa'īd b. Abī 'Arūba, to Yazīd b. Zuray', to Mu'ādh b. Bishr that is cited 3060 times. Note that the first three scholars in this isnād are all Basrans mentioned by al-Dhahabī in Tadhkirat al-huffāz. The second most frequently cited isnād in al-Tabarī's tafsīr, Yūnus b. 'Abd al-A'lā \to Ibn Wahb \to 'Abd al-Raḥmān b. Zayd, also contains two scholars—Yūnus and Ibn Wahb—who are honored in Tadhkirat al-huffāz.

94 Hodgson, The Venture of Islam, II, 36. This phrase was initially coined by V. Minorsky, although Hodgson does not provide a reference for it.

⁹⁵ A ninth scholar, whom I have not included, is the hadīth-transmitter critic Abū l-Fath al-Azdī of Mosul (d. 374/984–5) who settled in Baghdad. Despite his studies with Abū Ya'lā l-Mawṣilī and al-Ṭabarī, certain later scholars, such as al-Barqānī, considered him to be weak. Al-Dhahabī mentions his large book of unreliable transmitters (du'afā'), and complains that he criticized many scholars without any justification; Tadhkira, III, 117.

⁹⁶ Tadhkira, III, 23. Melchert credits Ibn Surayj with the accomplishment of founding the classical Shāfi'ī madhhab and notes than none of his books has survived; The Formation of the Sunni Schools of Law, 88–102. Al-Dhahabī counts the great Palestinian hadīth scholar al-Tabarānī among his students.

⁹⁷ Tadhkira, III, 6; The Formation of the Sunni Schools of Law, 143-50.

⁹⁸ Tadhkira, III, 31. The critic al-Fallās was among his teachers.

⁹⁹ Tadhkira, III, 99. One of his students is Abū Nu'aym al-Iṣbahānī of the thirteenth tabaga. Abū Bakr al-Ājurrī's book has been published in six volumes as Kītāb al-sharī'a (Riyadh: Dār al-Watan, 1997).

for thirty years in the area of Bukhara and Samargand. 100 A Baghdādī collector of hadīth who chose to stay in his hometown is Abū Hafs Ibn Shāhīn (d. 385/995), and al-Dhahabī adorns him with the honorific 'Shaykh of Iraq.' He is reported to have composed an enormous tafsīr, a biographical dictionary, and a staggering collection of hadīth from the tenth tabaga scholar Abū l-Qāsim al-Baghawī (d. 317/929). 101 Ibn Shāhīn represents an interesting case of a hadīth scholar who unabashedly refused to study jurisprudence (figh) and would brazenly reply to the question "what is your madhhab?" with the answer "that of Muhammad." 102

CHAPTER THREE

The most exceptional scholar of this phase, in the eyes of al-Dhahabī, is the Shaykh al-Islām and 'Hāfiz of the age' Abū l-Hasan 'Alī b. 'Umar al-Dāraquṭnī (d. 385/995). 103 His education consisted of the seven Qur'anic readings from the man who codified them, Ibn al-Mujāhid (d. 326/936), and hadīth from numerous scholars, such as Ibn Abī Dāwūd and Ibn Sā'id. His modest book entitled Sunan has enjoyed a high degree of prestige among the authoritative Sunnī works, and his opinions concerning hadīth-transmitter criticism and general hadīth criticism ('ilal) have been valued by all Sunnī scholars. Finally, his roster of students is the envy of any teacher, as it includes many of the great names we shall be encountering in the fifth phase: al-Hākim al-Naysābūrī, 'Abd al-Ghanī b. Sa'īd al-Misrī, Abū Bakr al-Bargānī, Abū Dharr al-Harawī, and Abū Nu'aym al-Isbahānī.

The triumph of the cities of Iran during the fourth phase should be seen as the culmination of a process that had its roots back in the eighth tabaga with Ibn Rāhawayh and the ninth one with al-Dhuhlī, Muslim, Abū Hātim, Abū Zur'a, and Ibn Wāra. The master critic (nāqid) and Shaykh al-Islām Ibn Abī Hātim al-Rāzī (d. 327/939) synthesized the teachings of the three master critics of Rayy into his book entitled al-Jarh wa l-ta'dīl. 104 Despite the fact that he did not

travel to Khurāsān, Abū Ahmad al-Hākim of Nishapur came to him, as did a seminal scholar of Isfahan, Abū l-Shaykh b. Hayvān.

The city of Jurjān in the province of Tabaristān enjoyed a brief international florescence due to the erudition of two of her native twelfth tabaqa sons. 105 Abū Aḥmad 'Abdullāh b. 'Adī (d. 365/976) compiled one of the most prestigious books of tarnished transmitters, titled al-Kāmil fī du'afā' al-rijāl, that ultimately served as the platform for al-Dhahabī's own critical masterpiece, Mīzān al-i'tidāl. Al-Daraquini is reported to have answered a request that he compile a dictionary of unreliable hadīth transmitters with the curt reply "Do you not have the Kāmil of Ibn 'Adī?" When they replied in the affirmative, he said "It is sufficient; there is nothing to add to it." 106 Ibn 'Adī's contemporary in Juriān who led his funeral prayers was the Shaykh al-Islām Abū Bakr al-Ismā'īlī (d. 371/981-2).107 Al-Hākim al-Naysābūrī reports that al-Ismā'īlī was the "Shaykh of the muhaddithūn and the fuqahā'," and al-Dhahabī mentions that he was a leader of the Shāfi'ī madhhab in this region.

The Khurāsānī city of Nishapur was the only serious rival to Baghdad during the fourth phase of hadīth scholarship. Abū 'Awāna Ya'qūb b. Isḥāq (d. 316/928) studied in his home city with al-Dhuhlī prior to settling in Isfarāyīn, where he introduced the Shāfi'ī madhhab. 108 Another student of al-Dhuhlī, Abū 'Amr al-Hīrī (d. 317/929), acquired

Tadhkira, III, 118. His full name is Abū Muslim 'Abd al-Raḥmān b. Muḥammad and Abū 'Abdullāh al-Hākim al-Naysābūrī is one of his pupils.

Abū l-Qāsim 'Abdullāh b. Muḥammad al-Baghawī studied with Ibn al-Madīnī and Ibn Hanbal, among others, and taught Ibn Sā'id and al-Dāragutnī; Tadhkira, II. 217. He should not be confused with the famous fifteenth tabaga scholar Abū Muhammad al-Baghawī al-Shāfi'ī, whom we shall encounter in the sixth phase.

Tadhkira, III. 129. Al-Dhahabī lists al-Barqānī among Ibn Shāhīn's pupils.

¹⁰³ Tadhkira, III, 132-4.

¹⁰⁴ Tadhkira, III, 34. For a somewhat superficial study of the introduction of this

book, sec Eerik Dickinson, The Development of Early Sunnite Hadith Criticism (Leiden: Brill, 2001). I address Dickinson's rather sweeping arguments concerning Ibn Abī Hātim's misrepresentation of the first two generations of hadith-transmitter critics in the following chapter.

Two ninth tabaqa master hadīth scholars who lived in Jurjān a century earlier and composed musnads are 'Ammar b. Raja' al-Astarabadhī (d. 267/880) and Ishaq b. Ibrāhīm al-Wazdūlī (d. 259/873); Tadhkira, II, 108-9. Al-Dhahabī mentions that some of al-Wazdūlī's hadīth are found in Abū Bakr al-Ismā'īlī's Sahīh; Siyar, XII, 507-8.

¹⁰⁶ Tadhkira, III, 102. This story is either apocryphal, or al-Dāraquṭnī evidently changed his mind, as he composed a 632-entry book of weak transmitters titled Kītāb al-du'afā' wa l-matrūkīn (Beirut, 1984). Ibn 'Adī studied with al-Nasā'ī and Abū Ya'lā l-Mawsilī, and al-Dhahabī reports that he also composed a book based on the chapters of the classical Shāfi'i figh book al-Mukhtasar of Abū Ibrāhīm Ismā'il b. Yahyā al-Muzanī (d. 264/878). Note that al-Dhahabī does not include al-Muzanī, the Egyptian disciple of al-Shāfi'ī, in Tadhkirat al-huffāz. Abū Ishāq al-Shīrāzī mentions him in Tabagat al-fugaha', 97; see also The Formation of the Sunni Schools of Law.

¹⁰⁷ Tadhkira, III, 106. A portion of al-Ismā'īlī's large three volume mu'jam has been published recently (Mecca, c. 1990-5) and his teachers include al-Nasā'ī and Ibn Khuzavma.

¹⁰⁸ Tadhkira, III, 3. His students include Ibn 'Adī, Abū Bakr al-Ismā'īlī, and Abū

hadīth from Abū Zur'a al-Rāzī and the Musnad of Abū Sa'īd al-Dārimī. 109 A third major hadīth scholar of Nishapur in the first decades of the fourth/tenth century is the critic (al-nāqid) Ibn al-Jārūd (d. 307/919-20), a close companion of Ibn Khuzayma, who composed a short book of legal hadīth called al-Muntaqā fī l-aḥkām. 110 The final major Nishapurian scholar of the eleventh tabaqa is Ibn al-Sharqī (d. 325/937), the disciple and authoritative (ḥujja) compiler of Muslim's Ṣaḥīh. 111 These four master scholars not only compiled valuable Sunnī hadīth books, but also transmitted their knowledge to another generation of exceptional scholars, two of whom maintained this high standard in Nishapur. 112

Abū 'Alī al-Ḥusayn b. 'Alī al-Naysābūrī (d. 349/960) has already received some attention due to his rare sobriquet 'Muḥaddith al-Islām.' His extensive travels netted him a large library of ḥadīth, and some of his more prominent teachers include al-Nasā'ī, Abū Ya'lā, and, closer to home, Ibn al-Sharqī. The other twelfth tabaqa master ḥadīth scholar of significance is Abū Aḥmad Muḥammad b. Muḥammad al-Ḥākim (d. 378/988), the 'Muḥaddith of Khurāsān,' who was an expert in the standards used by al-Bukhārī and Muslim for the inclusion of material in their respective Ṣaḥīḥ books. Ha Student of Ibn

'Alī al-Naysābūrī, and as was mentioned above, his mustakhraj based on the Sahīh of Muslim is among the ten books of Ibn Hajar's Ithāf al-mahara.

100 Tadhkira, III, 15. Al-Dhahabī recognizes him as the 'Shaykh of Nishapur,' and his students also include Abū Bakr al-Ismā'īlī and Abū 'Alī al-Naysābūrī.

Tadhkira, III, 29. Al-Dhahabī reports that Ibn al-Sharqī also studied with Abū Ḥātim al-Rāzī, and that Ibn 'Adī checked all of the contents of al-Kāmil with him for accuracy. His name is Abū Ḥāmid Aḥmad b. Muḥammad b. al-Ḥasan.

112 Another important Nishapurian student of Ibn Khuzayma is the hadīth-transmitter critic Abū Ja'far Muḥammad b. 'Amr al-'Uqaylī (d. 322/934) who settled in the Hijāz; Tadhkira, III, 36-7. His large book consisting solely of unreliable transmitters, Kūāb al-du'afā', was one of the first systematic books of its kind and has published in four volumes in Riyadh by Dār al-Sumay'ī (2000).

113 Tadhkira, III, 79. His students include the exceptional hadīth scholar al-Ḥākim Abū 'Abdullāh al-Naysābūrī, as well as the prominent Isfahānī Abū 'Abdullāh Ibn Manda and the Sūfī Abū 'Abd al-Rahmān al-Sulamī.

114 Tadhkira, III, 123. He is reported to have made his own personal editions (kharraja 'alā) of the two Ṣaḥīḥs, the Jāmi' of al-Tirmidhī, and the Mukhtaṣar of al-Muzanī. Al-Dhahabī includes a fascinating anecdote relating Abū Aḥmad's surprise in Rayy at a reading of al-Jarḥ wa l-ta'dīl to its compiler Ibn Abī Ḥātim, and said

Khuzayma, and a skilled jurist of the Shāfi'ī madhhab, Abū Aḥmad served as qāḍī of Shāsh (now Tashkent) from 333–37/944–48 and Ṭūs from 337–45/948–56. The remainder of his life was spent in Nishapur, where he taught hadīth and general hadīth criticism ('ilal') to, among others, the previously mentioned al-Ḥākim Abū 'Abdullāh al-Naysābūrī.

Two additional Khurāsānī master scholars of the fourth phase must be included in this historical survey. Abū Nadr Muhammad b. Muhammad al-Tūsī (d. 344/955-6), an eleventh tabaga Shaykh al-Islām, also acquired the honorific of 'Shaykh of the Shāfi'ī madhhab' due to his mastery of jurisprudence. 115 Al-Dhahabī mentions that al-Hākim al-Naysābūrī visited Abū Nadr twice in Tūs, where he observed that he spent a third of the night compiling books, another third reading Qur'an, and a third asleep. The other master hadith scholar of considerable interest for this book is the 'renaissance muhaddith' Abū Ḥātim Ibn Ḥibbān al-Bustī (d. 354/965).116 His student al-Hākim al-Naysābūrī reports that he passed through Nishapur several times, served as a qādī briefly in Nasā, built a khānagah in which he read all of his books, and returned home to Sijistān in 340/951.117 Ibn Hibban is a particularly interesting case, as he is one of the few hadith scholars to have achieved a proficiency in non-religious sciences, and his khānaqah is one of the few references to such a structure in the entire Tadhkira.

The final Iranian city that achieved a worldwide level of prominence for *hadīth* scholarship during the fourth phase is Isfahan. In fact, just as the tradition in Nishapur was beginning to lose steam in the twelfth *tabaqa*, Isfahan received an extraordinary foundation

¹¹⁰ Tadhkira, III, 12. This book was granted the same status as the Saḥīḥs of al-Bukhārī and Muslim by Ibn Hazm, and Ibn Hajar included it among the 'ten books' of Ithāf al-mahara. The published edition includes 1114 hadīth, many of which come from al-Dhuhlī, and is titled al-Muntaqā min al-sunan al-musnada 'an rasūl Allāh (Beirut: Dār al-Qalam, 1987). Ibn al-Jarūd's name is 'Abdullāh b. 'Alī b. Jārūd.

to one of the readers: "This is funny—I see you reading the *Tānīkh* of al-Bukhārī to your Shaykh and attributing it to Abū Zur'a and Abū Hātim!" The student replied: "When al-Bukhārī's *Tānīkh* was brought to Abū Hātim and Abū Zur'a, they said: 'This knowledge is indispensable—it does us no good to mention it on anyone else's authority"; *ibid.*, III, 124.

¹¹⁵ Tadhkira, III, 73. His teachers include Muḥammad b. Naṣr al-Marwazī and Ismā'īl al-Qādī, as well as Abū Sa'īd al-Dārimī of Herat.

¹¹⁶ Tadhkira, III, 89. Ibn Hibbān studied with al-Nasā'ī, Abū Ya'lā, and Ibn Khuzayma; he also dabbled in astronomy and medicine during his time as qāḍī in the culturally rich Sāmānid capital of Samarqand.

¹¹⁷ Tadhkira, III, 90. We have already mentioned that al-Fārisī's abridgement of Ibn Ḥibbān's Ṣaḥīḥ is included among Ibn Ḥajar's ten books in Itḥāf al-mahara, and that al-Dhahabī mentions his Kītāb al-thiqāt among the four most important sources for this type of knowledge in al-Mūgiza.

in the form of two scholars. Abū l-Qāsim Sulaymān b. Aḥmad al-Ṭabarānī (d. 360/971), the authority (hujja) and 'Musnid of the temporal world (dunyā)' spent the final seven decades of his long life in his adopted city of Isfahan. The largest of his three hadīth encyclopedias, al-Mu'jam al-kabīr, is really a musnad work (minus the musnad of Abū Hurayra) that contains at least 30,000 hadīth. Al-Ṭabarānī also achieved notoriety in the hadīth competitions (mudhākara) he held in 349/960 with the master Baghdādī scholar Ibn al-Ji'ābī (d. 355/966). The other important hadīth scholar of Isfahan during this time was Abū Bakr b. Abī 'Āṣim Abū l-Shaykh (d. 369/979–80). Al-Dhahabī recognizes Abū l-Shaykh as the 'Musnid of his time' and includes an anecdote on the authority of "some 'ulamā'" that they always found al-Ṭabarānī laughing or joking when they visited him, whereas Abū l-Shaykh was always praying. 121

It is also necessary to pay a brief visit to Cordoba in order to introduce a few of the scholars who bridge the gap between the tenth tabaga Shaykh al-Islām Baqiyy b. Makhlad and the fourteenth ţabaqa Shuyūkh al-Islām al-Dānī and Ibn 'Abd al-Barr. One early scholar of the eleventh tabaqa is the 'Muhaddith of al-Andalus' Abū 'Abdullāh Ibn Ḥayyūn (d. 305/917). Despite his predilection for lashayyu', Ibn Hayyūn is evaluated as an Imām by al-Dhahabī, and it is quite likely that he brought a copy of Ibn Hanbal's Musnad back to al-Andalus with him after his time in Baghdad with Ibn Hanbal's son 'Abdullāh.122 A second 'Shaykh al-Andalus' of the eleventh tabaqa is Abū 'Umar Ibn al-Jabbāb al-Qurtubī (d. 322/934). Ibn al-Jabbāb studied with Baqiyy b. Makhlad, excelled at Mālikī jurisprudence, and is reported to have composed a book on the stories of the prophets. 123 The final major Andalusī scholar of this phase who must be mentioned is al-Qāsim b. Asbagh al-Qurtubī (d. 340/951-2), another student of Bagiyy b. Makhlad. Qāsim traveled to Baghdād

in order to acquire knowledge from Ismā'īl al-Qāḍī and the history of Ibn Abī Khaythama; Ibn Ḥazm considered his ḥadīth book al-Muntaqā to be of the same status as al-Muntaqā of Ibn al-Jārūd al-Naysābūrī and the Ṣahīḥ collections of al-Bukhārī and Muslim.¹²⁴

A final scholar of the fourth phase who should not be overlooked is Abū Ja'far Aḥmad b. Muḥammad al-Ṭaḥāwī (d. 321/933). Al-Dhahabī reports that al-Ṭaḥāwī adopted the Ḥanafī madhhab after his uncle, the famous Shāfi'ī jurist al-Muzanī, insulted him by saying "By God! Nothing good will come of you!" Al-Ṭaḥāwī's extraordinary knowledge of ḥadīth in addition to Ḥanafī jurisprudence is evident from his significant book Kītāb ma'ānī al-āthār, al-āthār, and his concise creed ('aqīda) has also achieved a prominent place among most Sunnī scholars to this day.

The fourth phase of Sunnī hadīth scholarship demonstrates a remarkable continuity in both scope and quality with the preceding one. Four of the ten books synthesized by Ibn Ḥajar in his Ithāf al-mahara were composed during this period and the Baghdādī scholars al-Khallāl, al-Ājurrī, and al-Dāraquṭnī all left impressive compilations of hadīth that have survived to this day. Al-Ṭabarānī's al-Mujam al-kabīr remains one of the largest hadīth books ever compiled, and both Abū Bakr al-Ismā'īlī's books and al-Qāsim b. Aṣbagh's al-Muntaqā exerted a deep influence in their respective regions of the Islamic Community. Furthermore, the fourth phase witnessed a remarkable proliferation of the standard Sunnī hadīth-transmitter criticism books by Ibn Abī Ḥātim al-Rāzī, Ibn 'Adī, Ibn Ḥibbān, al-'Uqaylī and Abū l-Fatḥ al-Azdī. Finally, the careful attention paid to the Sahīḥs of al-Bukhārī and Muslim by scholars such as Ibn al-Sharqī, Abū

¹¹⁸ Tadhkira, III, 85. His insatiable quest for hadīth led him from his hometown 'Akkā in Palestine to nearly one thousand teachers, including the Shaykh al-Islām al-Nasā'ī in Egypt, throughout the lands of Islam.

¹¹⁹ His intermediary mu jam, al-Mu jam al-awsat, contains over 10,000 hadīth.
120 Ibn al-Ji ābī was a student of Ibn Hibbān who taught al-Dāraquṭnī, Ibn Shāhīn, and Abū 'Alī al-Naysābūrī prior to his conversion to speculative theology or Imāmī Shī ism near the end of his life; Tadhkira, III, 92-4.

¹²¹ Tadhkira, III, 105.

¹²³ Tadhkira, III, 25. His name is Abū 'Umar Aḥmad b. Khālid b. Yazīd.

¹²⁴ Tadhkira, III, 49 and 227. His Andalusī students were the teachers of Ibn 'Abd al-Barr. Al-Dhahabī reports that Ibn Asbagh compiled a hadīth book arranged according to the topics of Muslim's Sahīh; ibid., III, 49.

¹²⁵ Tadhkira, III, 21. wa-llāhi, lā jā'a minka shay'un!

This book is included among the ten books in Ibn Ḥajar's Ithāf al-mahara. The large four-volume 1996 Dār al-Kutub al-'Ilmiyya edition Sharḥ ma'ānī l-āthār lacks a numerical counter, although it is safe to say that the book contains several thousand hadīth in its twenty-nine chapters. This book is critically important for hadīth studies because al-Ṭaḥāwī methodically collects clusters of hadīth related to a single legal topic and explains which version of the report is the most authoritative on the basis of hadīth-transmitter criticism and his profound knowledge of the differing opinions of most of the major early Muslim jurists. Al-Ṭaḥāwī's other famous hadīth book, Sharḥ mushkil al-āthār, has been edited with extensive notes by Shu'ayb al-Arnā'tū (Beirut: Mu'assasa al-Risāla, 1994). Note that Ṣiddīqī does not mention al-Taḥāwī in Hadīth Literature.

Bakr al-Ismā'īlī, and Abū Aḥmad al-Ḥākim demonstrates that these books achieved an unparalleled degree of prestige within less than a century of their compilation. Given the large number of original hadīth books that Muslim scholars compiled from the second to fourth phases of this survey, it is perhaps not surprising that far more attention was devoted to the composition of biographical dictionaries and books concerning the hadīth disciplines during the next phase of Sunnī hadīth scholarship.

III.6 Phase 5: The age of specialization (c. 400-480/1009-1087)

The presence of six of Ibn al-Şalāḥ's seven "scholars who compiled useful compositions" in the fields of hadīth scholarship in the fifth phase of this historical survey is eloquent testimony to its significance.¹²⁷ Three of the four Shuyūkh al-Islām of this phase thrived in al-Andalus, and the fact that one of them never traveled east for educational purposes indicates the self-sufficient excellence of hadīth scholarship that had developed from the time of Bagiyy b. Makhlad. The fourth Shaykh al-Islām of this period lived in Herat, which was also the birthplace of the most elevated transmitter of the Sahīh of al-Bukhārī. Two cities of Iran—Isfahan and Nishapur—continued to produce illustrious scholars, as did Baghdad. The arrival of the Ismā'īlī Fatimids challenged the hadith scholarship of Egypt and Mecca, which had achieved a high level of quality under the Ikhshīdids and the more or less independent Hijāz. In many ways, the fifth phase of hadīth criticism and transmission completes the period of original books of hadīth literature that began back in the middle of the second/eighth century of Islamic civilization.

Four major Andalusī scholars contributed to the venture of hadīth transmission in a manner that deeply effected both the western and central lands of the Muslim world. The Ṣūfī Shaykh al-Islām 'Aṭiyya b. Sa'īd (d. 408/1017-8) traveled all the way to Transoxania in order to hear the Ṣaḥīḥ of al-Bukhārī from a student of the original compiler of the book, al-Firabrī. 'Aṭiyya transmitted the Ṣaḥīḥ in his adopted home of Mecca, where he also shared his expertise in

the variant readings of the Qur'an (qira'at) and mysticism. 129 A second Andalusī Shaykh al-Islām, Abu 'Amr 'Uthmān b. Sa'īd al-Dānī (d. 444/1052), was also a world class expert of qirā'āt and is reported to have composed 120 books. 130 The third and final Shaykh al-Islām of this period, Ibn 'Abd al-Barr (d. 463/1071), is distinguished as the sole Andalusī among Ibn al-Ṣalāh's list of 'seven compilers of useful books' and left an extraordinary textual legacy. 131 Ibn 'Abd al-Barr's biographical dictionary of the sahāba, Kītāb al-istī'āb, was considered the premier book of its type by Ibn al-Salāh, 132 and his monograph Jāmi' bayān al-'ilm wa fadlih was one of the first systematic articulations of the hadīth disciplines. Two exhaustive commentaries of al-Muwatta', the Tamhīd and al-Istidhkār, unequivocably secured Ibn 'Abd al-Barr's spot among the most august Sunnī scholars. 133 These accomplishments are all the more impressive considering that Ibn 'Abd al-Barr never left al-Andalus, and indicate the high level of indigenous hadīth erudition of his numerous teachers, many of whom had studied with Ibn al-Jabbāb and al-Qāsim b. Asbagh.

The final Andalusī scholar who requires attention is the iconoclastic genius 'Alī b. Aḥmad Ibn Ḥazm (d. 456/1064). Despite his early life of privilege as the son of a wazīr, Ibn Ḥazm developed an unquenchable thirst for religious knowledge in his early twenties. His unique articulation of the Zāhirī madhhab earned him the title mujtahid from al-Dhahabī, and his multi-volume legal book al-Muḥallā bi-l-āthār was one of the few texts in its day to be grounded almost exclusively upon the Qur'ān and the authoritative ḥadīth books instead of the opinions of earlier master jurists. 134 Ibn Ḥazm's efforts

¹²⁷ See above, II.1.

¹²⁸ Tadhkira, III, 192.

 $^{^{129}}$ 'Aṭiyya was a disciple of the famous mystic Abū 'Abd al-Raḥmān al-Sulamī in both Nishapur and Baghdad.

¹³⁰ Tadhkira, III, 211.

¹³¹ Tadhkira, III, 217. Al-Dhahabī quotes Ibn Ḥazm's praise of Ibn 'Abd al-Barr's large commentary on the Muwaṭṭa', al-Tamhīd, as well as its large abridgement, al-Istidhkār.

¹³² Muqaddima Ibn al-Ṣalāḥ, 485.

¹³³ All four of these books have been published: 1) al-Istī āb fī ma'rīfat al-aṣḥāb (Cairo, 196-); 2) Jāmī bayān al-ʿīlm wa fadihi (Cairo, 1975); 3) al-Tamhīd li-mā fī l-Muwaṭṭa' min al-ma'ānī wa l-asānīd, 26 vols. (Rabat, 1974-92); 4) al-Istidhkār al-jāmī li-madhāhib fuqahā' al-amṣār wa 'ulamā' al-aqṭār fīmā taḍammanahu "al-Muwaṭṭa'" min ma'ānī al-ra'y wa-al-āthār, 30 vols. (Beirut: Dār Qutaybah and Cairo: Dār al-Wa'y, 1993).

¹³⁴ Tadhkira, III, 227–9. The undated Dār al-Fikr edition of this book consists of 2312 topics, the first 91 of which are theological, the following 18 of which are concerned with legal principles $(us\bar{u}l)$, and the remainder of which cover all aspects

to articulate a genuinely Sunnī 'hadīth folk' legal madhhab not only influenced the paradigm-shifting mystic Muḥyī l-Dīn Ibn 'Arabī, but appears to have anticipated the salafī movement of Ibn Taymiyya by three centuries. Unfortunately, Western scholarship has focused almost exclusively on Ibn Ḥazm's enjoyable, but largely inconsequential treatise on love, and thus our understanding of his creative efforts remains in its infancy.¹³⁵

Meanwhile, in Herat there flourished another Ṣūfī Shaykh al-Islām as well as another master transmitter of al-Bukhārī's Ṣaḥīḥ. Abū Ismā'īl 'Abdullāh al-Anṣārī (d. 481/1088), author of the famous Ṣūfī guide Manāzil al-sā'irīn, is honored by al-Dhahabī with the sobriquet Shaykh al-Islām for his profound knowledge of hadīth, staunch antispeculative theology stance, and ability to rise above the Ḥanafī-Shāfi'ī quarrels of his day. 136 The second most prestigious scholar of Herat was Abū Dharr al-Harawī (d. 434/1042–3) who synthesized three recensions of al-Bukhārī's Ṣaḥīḥ and transmitted it from the central location of Mecca. 137 Abū Dharr studied briefly with al-Dāraquṭnī in Baghdad on his way to Mecca, and his choice of the Mālikī legal

of Islamic law. Note that al-Dhahabī studied al- $Muhall\bar{a}$ closely and made an abridgement of this book.

137 Ibn Hajar praises Abū Dharr's recension of the Sahīh of al-Bukhārī in Fath al-Bārī, I, 9–10. His source for the Firabrī recension of the Sahīh was 'Abdullāh b. Ahmad b. Hammuwayh (d. 381/991) of Sarakhs, who was also a transmitter of al-Dārimī's Sunan and the large musnad and tafsīr of the ninth-tabaqa hāfiz 'Abd b. Humavd al-Kissī (d. 249/863); al-Dhahabī, Siyar, XVI, 492–3.

madhhab with the Ash'arī theological one struck many of his contemporaries as odd, especially given his Central Asian roots. 138

Two particularly strong Iranian scholars in the city of Isfahan built upon the foundation established by al-Tabarānī and Abū l-Shaykh at this time. Abū 'Abdullāh Ibn Manda (d. 395/1005) collected an extraordinary amount of hadith during a journey during which he supposedly encountered 1,700 shuyūkh.139 Ibn 'Asākir identifies four major sources of Ibn Manda's hadīth and remarks that his famous biographical dictionary of sahāba contained many errors. 140 Ibn Manda is reported to have been involved in a vicious dispute with his fellow 'Muhaddith of the Age' and hometown rival, Abū Nu'aym Ahmad b. 'Abdullāh al-Isbahānī (d. 430/1039) due to their differences in madhhab. 141 Ibn al-Ṣalāḥ includes Abū Nu'aym among his list of 'seven compilers of useful books' on the account of his impressive corpus of compositions. 142 His most famous book is the 689-entry biographical dictionary of pious scholars and mystics entitled Hilyat al-awliya, that is both a rich source of historical information concerning Hodgson's elusive 'piety-minded' Muslims of early Islamic history, and probably was, in its day, the largest work arranged by tabaqāt that was composed after Ibn Sa'd's al-Tabaqāt al-kabīr. 143

¹³⁵ Two books that move beyond the seductive Tawq al-hamāma are Goldziher's The Zāhirīs (translated and ed. by Wolfgang Behn, Leiden: Brill, 1971), and R. Arnaldez's Grammaire et theologie chez Ibn Hazm de Courdoue (Paris: J. Vrin, 1956). The E12 article by Arnaldez is also very insightful. The relationship between the post-Ibn Hazm Zāhirīs and Ibn Taymiyya's salafī movement has not, to my knowledge, been confirmed, although the ideological similarities between the two groups are striking. Al-Dhahabī's defense of Ibn Hazm in the Tadhkira against his numerous adversaries, as well as the fact that he designated him and Ibn Taymiyya as mujtahids in this book indicates Ibn Hazm's deep influence upon him.

¹³⁶ Tadhkira, III, 250-1. For a brief study of al-Ansari's life and works, see A. G. Ravan Farhadi, Abdullah Ansari of Herat (Richmond: Curzon Press, 1996). Manāzil al-sā'irīn was edited critically and translated into French by S. de Laugier de Beaurecueil as 'Abdallah al-Anṣārī al-Harawī: Les Étapes des Itinérants vers Dieu (Cairo, 1962). 'Abdullāḥ-al-Anṣārī's Persian Munajāt have been translated by Wheeler Thackston in the Classics of Western Spirituality series as Ibn 'Ata'llah: The Book of Wisdom/Kwaja Abdullah Ansari: Intimate Conversations (New York: Paulist Press, 1978). Finally, his collection of forty theological hadīth, Kītāb al-arba'īn fī dalā'il al-tawhīd (No place, 1984), as well as his multi-volume diatribe against the proponents of speculative theology, Dhamm al-kalām wa ahlih (Medina: Maktabat al-'Ulūm wa l-Hikam, 1995), have been published.

¹³⁸ Tadhkira, III, 201.

¹³⁹ There are four 'Ibn Mandas' in *Tadhkirat al-ḥuffāz*: 1) Abū 'Abdullāh Muḥammad b. Yaḥyā b. Manda (d. 301/914); his grandson 2) Abū 'Abdullāh Muḥammad b. Isḥāq b. Muḥammad; his great-grandson 3) Abū l-Qāsim 'Abd al-Raḥmān b. Muḥammad b. Isḥāq (d. 470/1077); and his great-grandson 4) Abū Zakariyyā Yaḥyā b. 'Abd al-Wahhāb b. Muḥammad (d. 511/1117); *Tadhkira*, II, 219; III, 157, 238 and IV, 33. All four members of the Ibn Manda dynasty lived in Isfahan.

¹¹⁰ Tadhkira, III, 157. The four sources are Abū Saʿīd Ibn al-Aʿrābī (d. 340/951-2) of Mecca, al-Aṣamm of Nishapur, Khaythama b. Sulaymān (d. 343/955) of Syria, and al-Haytham b. Kulayb of Samarqand. All but the latter have entries in *Tadhkira*, III. 47, 53, and 51, respectively.

Tadhkira, III, 195. Abū Nu'aym studied with the master hadīth scholar al-Tabarānī and he passed his knowledge on to al-Khaṭīb al-Baghdādī and numerous teachers of Abū Ṭāhir al-Silafī.

¹⁴² These include a history of Isfahan, a biographical dictionary of saḥāba, and a mustakhraj for the Ṣaḥāḥ Muslim. All three works have been published: 1) Kūāb tārūkh Iṣbahān: dhikr akhbār Iṣbahān, 4 vols. (Beirut, 1990); 2) Ma'rīfat al-ṣaḥāba, 7 vols. (Riyadh, 1998); and 3) al-Musnad al-mustakhraj 'alā Ṣaḥāḥ al-Imām Muslim, 4 vols. (Beirut, 1996). Note that Abū Nu'aym also composed a short book of weak hadīthtransmitters in which he identifies 289 men whose material should be avoided; Kūāb al-du'afā' (Casablanca, 1984). Abū Nu'aym's two most popular authorities for critical comments in this book are 'Alī b. al-Madīnī and al-Bukhārī.

¹⁴³ Abū Nu'aym, *Hilyat al-awliyā' wa ṭabaqāt al-aṣfiyā'* (Cairo, 1967–8). Abū Nu'aym's adoption of the *ṭabaqāt* structure was probably due to the influence of his fellow

The city of Nishapur, so prominent in the third and fourth phases, housed its final 'Imām of the muhaddithūn' in the thirteenth tabaqa. Al-Hākim Abū 'Abdullāh (d. 405/1014) studied with a vast number of shuyūkh, although his primary master was the previously discussed Abū 'Alī l-Naysābūrī.144 Ibn al-Salāh honors al-Hākim as one of the 'seven compilers of useful compositions,' and he has the distinction of being one of the few men to have compiled significant works in all three genres of hadīth literature. The Mustadrak 'alā al-Sahīhayn is the only hadith compilation of the fifth phase to be included in Ibn Hajar's Ithāf al-mahara, although al-Ḥākim's incorporation of many forged hadīth in its pages led several scholars to question his competence. 145 Al-Ḥākim's biographical dictionary Tārīkh Naysābūr, was, rather surprisingly, the first significant history of his hometown. 146 Finally, al-Hākim's slightly disjointed Ma'rifat 'ulūm al-hadīth was a major milestone in the tradition of systematic articulations of the hadīth disciplines and probably served as a model for Ibn al-Ṣalāh's Muqaddima. A final interesting quality of al-Ḥākim is his mild adherence to tashayyu' at this late date in the development of Sunnism, although the hostile reactions of several of his contemporaries clearly indicate this position was severely condemned in most Sunnī quarters.

The final major *hadīth* scholar who flourished during the fifth phase in the lands of Iran is the remarkable 'Shaykh of Khurāsān' Abū Bakr Aḥmad þ. al-Ḥusayn al-Bayhaqī (d. 458/1066). ¹⁴⁷ Despite the fact that al-Bayhaqī never studied the *Sunan* of al-Nasā'ī, the *Jāmi'* of al-Tirmidhī, nor the *Sunan* of Ibn Māja, he acquired a massive amount of material from his primary master, al-Ḥākim al-Naysābūrī, and composed several large *hadīth* books, four of which are particularly significant. Each one of these tomes indicates a degree of specialization that is typical of this age:

Tadhkira, III, 219. Ibn al-Ṣalāḥ includes al-Bayhaqī among the 'seven compilers of useful books' in Muqaddima Ibn al-Ṣalāḥ.

- 1) al-Asmā' wa l-ṣifāt, a clarification of the nature of the divine attributes;
- 2) Shu'ab al-īmān, an investigation into the 'branches' of faith;
- 3) Dalā'il al-nubuwwa, an elucidation of the Prophet Muḥammad's miracles and ethics;
- 4) al-Sunan al-kubrā, a truly enormous Shāfi'ī fiqh book that is saturated with thousands of hadīths with full isnāds. 148

It has already been suggested that al-Bayhaqī is the last of the compilers of 'original' hadīth books, although it must be born in mind that the absence of any studies of his or later scholars' hadīth books renders this hypothesis pure speculation.¹⁴⁹

Baghdad also nurtured two exceptional scholars during the fifth phase of hadīth scholarship. The 'Shaykh of the jurists and hadīth scholars,' Abū Bakr Ahmad b. Muhammad al-Khwārazmī al-Shāfi'ī, know as al-Bargānī, followed the example of Ibn Surayi a century and a half earlier by achieving a high proficiency in jurisprudence and hadīth. 150 He is reported to have reorganized the Sahīhs of al-Bukhārī and Muslim as a musnad book (i.e., according to sahāba), and his numerous students include Abū Bakr al-Bayhaqī, Abū Ishāq al-Shīrāzī, and the other extraordinary Baghdādī of this period, Abū Bakr Aḥmad b. 'Alī al-Khatīb al-Baghdādī (d. 463/1071). A student of Abū Nu'aym al-Isbahānī, among many others, al-Khatīb earned the honorific 'Muhaddith of Syria and Iraq' from al-Dhahabī due to his eleven year sojourn in Damascus and Aleppo. Many of his monographs on various hadīth disciplines have been mentioned in the previous chapter's discussion of Ibn al-Salāh's Muqaddima, and his most famous work is unquestionably the 7831-biography history of Baghdad. Al-Khatīb's vast corpus seems to have closed the era of Baghdad's primacy in hadīth scholarship that began in the eighth tabaqa with

150 Tadhkira, III, 183. Al-Barqānī studied with the Shaykh al-Islām Abū Bakr al-Ismā'tlī.

Sūfī al-Sulamī's Tamous Tabaqāt al-ṣūfiyya, although it seems quite likely that he was familiar with Ibn Sa'd's book in the course of his research for Kītāb ma'rifat al-ṣaḥāba.

¹⁴⁴ Tadhkira, III, 162.

It is therefore necessary to read the *Mustadrak* with al-Dhahabi's commentary on it. *Talkhīṣ al-mustadrak*, which, fortunately, has been included in the Hyderabad, Riyadh, and Cairo editions of al-Ḥākim's *al-Mustadrak*. See, for example, *al-Mustadrak* 'alā l-saḥīḥayn. 5 vols. (Cairo, 1997).

Only a fragment of a later Persian translation survives of this book, although al-Dhahabī quotes the Arabic original with great frequency in his historical works.

¹⁴⁸ It was a common practice among jurists to quote fragments of the *matns* of famous *hadīths* without mentioning their *isnāds* in the interests of brevity. Al-Bayhaqī's *Sunan al-kubrā* follows the pattern of *sunan ḥadīth* books like those of Abū Dāwūd and al-Nasā'ī, and thus includes full *isnāds* for each *ḥadīth*, for a vast array of legal topics. The 1925 Hyderabad edition of *al-Sunan al-kubrā* is based upon the recension that Ibn al-Ṣalāḥ transmitted from his teachers in Khurāsān.

¹⁴⁹ The honor of being the last 'original' musannif might actually belong to the sixth phase scholar al-Baghawī, whose 4200-hadīth book, Sharh al-sunna, and 2840-hadīth work Masābīh al-sunna, merit closer investigation.

Ibn Hanbal, Ibn Ma'ın, 'Alı b. al-Madını, Ibn Sa'd, and al-Fallas. Egypt was blessed with two master hadīth scholars during the fifth phase who lived under very different circumstances. 'Abd al-Ghanī b. Sa'īd al-Azdī (d. 409/1018) is the final one of Ibn al-Salāh's 'seven compilers of useful compositions' and reportedly studied with and taught al-Dāraqutnī. 151 'Abd al-Ghanī was praised by al-Barqānī, and was a teacher of the second major Egyptian hadith scholar of this period, Abū Ishāq al-Habbāl (d. 482/1089). Al-Dhahabī recognizes al-Habbāl, a bookseller of Andalusī origin, as the 'Muhaddith of Egypt,' and mentions that he was prevented from teaching hadīth to many students during the Fatimid period due to official state policies. These restrictions appear to be similar to those which suppressed the 'Shaykh of the Haram al-Sharīf' in Mecca, Abū l-Qāsim Sa'd b. 'Alī al-Zanjānī (d. 471/1078-9).152 Both scholars managed to teach a few students in their own homes during this time, and it is unclear from the Tadhkira exactly what effect the Fatimid caliphs had on Sunnī hadīth scholarship in general.

A review of the additions to our hadīth library that were composed during the fifth phase of my interpretation of al-Dhahabī's Tadhkirat al-huffāz indicates a shift in emphasis from general compilations to more specialized biographical and technical works. The only major hadīth compilations that have been added to the collection from the past two tabaqāt are the Mustadrak of al-Ḥākim, the four large books of al-Bayhaqī, the Tamhād of Ibn 'Abd al-Barr, and the Muḥallā of Ibn Ḥazm. Three biographical dictionaries of ṣahāba were compiled in this period for reasons that are not entirely clear. ¹⁵³ Al-Ḥākim's history of Nishapur, Abū Nuʻaym's encyclopedia of 'piety-minded' scholars, and al-Khaṭīb al-Baghdādī's history of Baghdad elevated the genre of biographical dictionaries to new heights. Finally, the hitherto undeveloped genre of hadīth disciplines received comprehensive articulations by Ibn 'Abd al-Barr, al-Ḥākim al-Naysābūrī,

are discussed below in chapter VI.3.1.

and al-Khaṭīb al-Baghdādī, as well as dozens of specialized books by the latter and al-Mu'talif wa l-mukhtalif of the Egyptian 'Abd al-Ghanī b. Sa'īd. It appears that the 'classical sources' of Sunnī hadīth literature were more or less completed by the the end of the fifth phase, and that the primary task for succeeding generations of hadīth scholars was to transmit and synthesize the daunting library of erudition that was compiled by several dozen scholars over a three century period.

III.7 Phase 6: Transition and the loss of the East (c. 480-600/1087-1203)

The intensity and volume of <code>hadīth</code> compilation of the preceding five phases being what it was, a period of notably less impressive achievements can be seen, perhaps, as having been inevitable. We have already observed that al-Dhahabī identifies a mere four Shuyūkh al-Islām in the first century of this phase and that the seventeenth <code>tabaqa</code> is the first one totally devoid of any scholars of this caliber. This qualitative decline is particularly surprising due to its occurrence during a period of staunchly Sunnī Seljuq rule. Why did Sunnī <code>hadīth</code> scholarship drop so precipitously during an age that is known to be an age of Sunnī revival?

One hypothesis might be that the Seljuk institution of the *madrasa* critically wounded the traditional networks of learning. This argument immediately loses some credibility in light of George Makdisi's observations that the curriculum of these schools was hardly standardized and that study of *hadīth* was practically inevitable. Daphna Ephrat has argued that the impact of the institution of the *madrasa* was not particularly significant in Baghdad during this 'age of transition' and that traditional scholarly networks continued to thrive. Siven all of the challenges faced by the scholars mentioned in the previous five phases, it does seem difficult to believe that a few well endowed schools could be held responsible for the small number of useful contributions to *hadīth* literature composed during this period.

¹⁵¹ Tadhkira, III, 167. His fame rested largely on his book al-Mu'talif wa l-mukhtalif that was useful for discerning the identities of hadīth transmitters in the isnāds, as well as for establishing the correct orthography of thousands of names.

¹⁵² Tadhkira, III, 253 (al-Ḥabbāl); 243 (al-Zanjānī).
153 A tempting explanation for this phenomenon would be that the dramatic rise of both Fāṭimī and Imāmī Shī'ism, both schools of which were known for their hostility towards the sahāba, stimulated a Sunnī reaction in the form of encyclopedias honoring the lives of the sahāba. Early Imāmī Shī'ī attitudes towards the sahāba

¹⁵⁴ George Makdisi, The Rise of Colleges (Edinburgh, 1981), 81-4.

Daphna Ephrat, A Learned Society in a Period of Transition (Albany, 2000), 68-72.

A second potential culprit for this qualitative drop in *hadīth* scholarship is the rise of *tarīqa* Ṣūfism. Many of al-Dhahabī's Shuyūkh al-Islām, such as 'Aṭiyya b. Sa'īd of al-Andalus and 'Abdullāh al-Anṣārī of Herat, were highly committed Ṣūfīs who expressed their piety by means of both esoteric spiritual exercises and exoteric dedication to the great Sunnī *ḥadīth* books. The virtual absence of any mystical Shuyūkh al-Islām from the fifteenth to twenty-first *ṭabaqāt* is interesting, but can hardly be interpreted as an impact of the poorly understood transformation of local Ṣūfī groups into world-wide orders. ¹⁵⁶

My opinion, in the absence of any clear explanation from al-Dhahabī, is that the library of hadīth books had grown so large over the course of three centuries of frenetic compilation that scholars had to devote the bulk of their energy to the preservation and organization of their predecessors' accomplishments. Many works had been lost during the course of this venture, such as most of the books of 'Alī b. al-Madīnī, 157 and it seems quite feasible that most scholars would shift their attention towards abridgements, commentaries, and reference works in order to facilitate the acquisition of the greatest diversity of this literature as was humanly possible. The transition away from the compilation of hadīth books can be seen already between the fourth and fifth phases, as only al-Hākim al-Naysābūrī and al-Bayhaqī composed hadīth books 'from scratch,' whereas those of Ibn Hazm and Ibn 'Abd al-Barr were extensive commentaries on relatively short legal works. 158 It should not be surprising, then, that the majority of the noteworthy compositions of the sixth phase of hadīth scholarship are biographical in nature, just as they were in the phase that preceded it. 159

Several master scholars elevated the Western Iranian cities of Isfahan and Hamadhan to the highest levels of Sunnī hadīth erudition during the fifteenth and sixteenth tabaqāt of al-Dhahabī's Tadhkirat al-huffāz. 160 The Shaykh al-Islām Abū l-Qāsim Ismā'īl b. Muḥammad al-Taymī (d. 535/1140-1) of Isfahan was a master of both hadīth and Qur'anic exegesis, and educated important sixth-phase scholars such as Abū Sa'd al-Sam'ānī, Ibn 'Asākir, and Abū Tāhir al-Silafī. 161 The second of these three scholars, al-Silafi (d. 576/1180), was a Shaykh al-Islām in his own right and played a critical role in the transmission of religious knowledge from Isfahan to Alexandria. 162 Al-Silafi compiled three mujams of hadith with elevated ('āli) isnāds that where highly valued by his students, like the important seventeenthtabaqa scholars Muhammad Ibn Tāhir al-Maqdisī, 'Abd al-Ghanī b. 'Abd al-Wāḥid al-Maqdisī, and Abd al-Qādir al-Ruhāwī. 163 The final Isfahanī Shaykh al-Islām of this period is Abū Mūsā l-Madīnī (d. 581/1185), the compiler of the fourth of the four sahāba biographical dictionaries that were synthesized by the famous historian 'Izz al-Dīn Ibn al-Athīr in his standard work Usd al-Ghāba.164 Finally, the

pilation to be a practical task. Certainly the numerous 'elevated' isnāds of hadīth cited throughout al-Dhahabī's books occupy far more space than most of the actual texts and arc of little interest for all save the most dedicated hadīth specialists.

¹⁶ Tadhkira, IV, 50–2. Al-Dhahabī reports that the slightly younger Shaykh al-Islām Abū Mūsā l-Madīnī knew of no scholar at the turn of the six century who was more knowledgeable of hadīth than Abū l-Qāsim al-Taymī, and that he composed Qur'anic commentaries in both Arabic and Persian. Abū Mūsā also mentions that al-Taymī refused to associate with the political rulers (salāṭīn) or even other scholars who did so.

¹⁶² Tadhkira, IV, 63. Al-Silasī lived in Alexandria the last sixty-five years of his century-long life.

¹⁵ⁿ Whether the Shaykh al-Islām al-Nawawī was a mystic or ascetic is something for his biographers to decide; al-Dhahabī, at least, describes his pious asceticism, as well as his erudition in the *Tadhkira*.

¹⁵⁷ Siyar, XI, 60. Al-Dhahabī cites a long list of Ibn al-Madīnī's books according to what al-Hākim al-Naysābūrī heard from the Qādī Muḥammad b. Ṣāliḥ al-Hāshimī; at the end of this list, al-Dhahabī reports al-Khaṭīb al-Baghdādī's observation that he had only seen four or five of these books (fa-jamī'un hādhihi l-kutub inqaraḍat; ra'aynā minhā arba'atan aw khamsa).

¹⁵⁸ Ibn Hazm's al-Muḥallā is a commentary on his own one-volume fiqh book entitled al-Mujallā; Tadhkira, III, 231.

¹⁵⁹ An even more mundane yet plausible explanation for the end of 'original' hadīth books could be that the isnād had grown far too long by this time for com-

despite his significant role in the transmission of many large hadith books is the centarian Abū 'Alī al-Ḥaddād, al-Ḥasan b. Aḥmad (d. 515/1121). Abū 'Alī heard the following books from Abū Nu'aym al-Iṣbahānī: al-Qa'nabī's recension of the Muwaṭṭa', Ibn Ḥanbal's Musnad, al-Ṭayālisī's Musnad, the Musnad of al-Ḥārith b. Abī Usāma, and Abū Nu'aym's own Ḥilyat al-awliyā', al-Mustakhraj 'alā Ṣaḥīḥ Muslim and al-Mustakhraj 'alā Ṣaḥīḥ al-Bukhārī. Al-Dhahabī reports that Abū 'Alī also acquired al-Ṭabarānī's al-Mu'jam al-awsaṭ, al-Ṭabaqāt of 'Alī b. al-Madīnī, and various collections of the hadīth of Sufyān al-Thawrī, al-Awzā'ī, and 'Abd al-Razzāq al-Ṣan'ānī; see Siyar, XIX, 303–7. Abū 'Alī's son, Abū Nu'aym 'Ubayd Allāh, known as Ibn al-Ḥaddād (d. 517/1123), only lived fifty-four years, but is included in the fifteenth tabaqa of Tadhkirat al-huffāz; Tadhkira, IV, 42.

Baghdad, and the third of those he met during his ten year travel. The last of these three books has been published: Mujam al-safar (Beirut: Dar al-Fikr, 1993).

Tadhkira, IV, 86. Abū Mūsā studied with the ascetic Ibn Ṭāhir al-Maqdisī

sixteenth-*ṭabaqa* Shaykh al-Islām 'Abū l-'Alā' al-Hamadhānī (d. 569/1173-4) was a master of Arabic grammar and the variant Qur'ānic readings, and his major pupil al-Ruhāwī reports that his books were popular in Khwārazm and Syria. ¹⁶⁵

Three excellent Andalusī scholars also flourished during this period in the wake of al-Dānī, Ibn 'Abd al-Barr, and Ibn Hazm. Abū 'Abdullāh Muhammad b. Abī Nasr al-Humaydī (d. 488/1095) was a close disciple of Ibn Hazm on the island of Majorca and dispersed his unique Zāhirī teachings and books throughout the central and eastern Islamic lands. 166 Al-Humavdī is reported to have devoted many years of his life to the examamination of the two Sahīhs of al-Bukhārī and Muslim and also exerted himself to compose a universal history of Muslim scholars arranged by their death dates. Abū 'Alī al-Hasan al-Jayvānī al-Ghassānī (d. 498/1104-5) never left al-Andalus, although his study of the hadīth-transmitters found in the Sahīhs of al-Bukhārī and Muslim achieved a high degree of popularity in the East. 167 Finally, the 'Scholar ('ālim) of the Maghrib,' al-Qādī 'Ivād b. Musā al-Sabtī (d. 544/1149) composed several important works, 168 and his study of the obscure expressions (al-gharā'ib) found in the Muwatta' and the two Sahīh books is further evidence of the shift of the scholarly focus of the sixth phase from the compilation of large original hadīth books to the elucidation of the most exalted books of the Sunnī hadīth tradition.

and taught Abū Sa'd al-Sam'ānī, al-Ḥāzimī, 'Abd al-Ghanī al-Maqdisī, and al-Ruhāwī. Al-Dhahabī also reports that Abū Mūsā knew al-Ḥākim al-Naysābūrī's Ma'rifat 'ulūm al-hadūth by heart.

The knowledge of al-Khaṭīb al-Baghdādī extended another generation in his home city in large part due to the labors of the Amīr Ibn Mākūlā. 169 The most famous book of this colorful personality, al-Ikmāl has already been encountered in the previous chapter in the connection with Ibn al-Ṣalāḥ's curriculum for the aspiring hadīth scholars. His teachers include the son of Ibn Shāhīn, and he received praise in Egypt from al-Ḥabbāl for his knowledge of hadīth and adab. Despite the uncertainty surrounding the location and date of his death, there is consensus that Ibn Mākūlā was the victim of foul play by his Turkish bodyguard, a fate quite unusual among al-Dhahabī's selection of huffāz.

The city of Marw in Khurāsān also enjoyed a florescence of hadīth scholarship during this generally lackluster period. The Shāfi'ī 'Reviver of the Sunna' and mujtahid Abū Muḥammad al-Ḥusayn b. Mas'ūd al-Baghawī (d. 516/1122) composed four major works, two of which are large hadīth collections. To Abū Bakr Muḥammad b. Manṣūr al-Sam'ānī (d. 510/1116) taught public preaching (wā'iz) for several years at the Nizāmiyya madrasa in Baghdād, was a companion of the Shaykh al-Islām al-Silafī, and read al-Khaṭīb's massive history of Baghdad. The passed away in middle age when his son, Abū Sa'd, was a mere five-year old, but fortunately his knowledge was transmitted to him via another prominent Marwazī scholar, Abū Ṭāhir Muḥammad b. Abī Bakr al-Subḥī (d. 548/1153). Al-Dhahabī provides an

¹⁶⁵ Tadhkira, IV, 80. One final scholar from this region found in Siyar a'lām alnubalā' but not in Tadhkirat al-huffāz is Abū l-Khayr al-Ṭālqānī, Aḥmad b. Ismā'īl (d. 590/1194). Al-Ṭālqānī was born in Qazvīn, studied in Nishapur, and taught in his native city and the prestigious Nizāmiyya college in Baghdad. Ibn al-Najjār reports that al-Ṭālqānī transmitted the Ṣaḥīḥ of Muslim, Musnad of Ibn Rāhawayh, Tārīkh of al-Ḥākim āl-Naysābūrī, and al-Sunan al-kubrā, Dalā'il al-nubuwwa, and al-Ba'th of al-Bayhaqī; Siyar, XXI, 190-2.

¹⁶⁰ Tadhkira, IV, 13. He also studied with Ibn 'Abd al-Barr, al-Khatīb al-Baghdādī, and the famous transmitter of the Saḥīḥ of al-Bukhārī, Karīma al-Marwaziyya, in Mecca.

¹⁶⁷ Tadhkira, IV, 23. Al-Jayyānī was a student Ibn 'Abd al-Barr. The title of this book is Taqyīd al-muhmal wa tamyīz al-mushkil and was published in 1997 in Morocco by al-Wizārat al-Awqāf wa-l-Shu'ūn al-Islāmiyya.

These books include a study of the ethics of the Prophet (al-Shifa'), a comprehensive biographical dictionary of Mālikī jurists (Tartīb al-mudārik wa taqrīb al-masālik), a history of al-Andalus and the Maghrib, and a commentary on the Saḥīh of Muslim (al-Ikmāl fī sharh Muslim).

Tadhkira, IV, 3. Al-Dhahabī reports a total lack of consensus as to this scholar's death date. Ibn 'Asākir puts it at about 470 in Jurjān, Abū Sa'd al-Sam'ānī suggests 485 or 486 in al-Ahwāz, Ibn al-Najjār posits 475, Ibn al-Jawzī reports it at 475 or 486, and Ibn Khallikān offers 479 and 487.

Tadhkira, IV, 37. These two books are Sharh al-sunna and Maṣābīh al-sunna. This latter book included 4,719 hadīth, 2251 of which came from either al-Bukhārī or Muslim, according to Robson. Walī al-Dīn Muḥammad b. 'Abdullāh al-Tibrīzī (d. around 738/1337) added 1,511 hadīth to this collection in his popular collection Mishkāt al-maṣābīh, and this book was translated into English by Robson as Mishkat al-maṣābīh (Lahore: S. M. Ashraf, 1960-4). Note that al-Baghawī does not include the isnāds of the hadīth in either Maṣābīh al-sunna nor Mishkāt al-maṣābīh, but merely indicates whether or not they were ṣaḥīh or hasan. Ibn al-Ṣalāḥ is particularly critical of al-Baghawī's innovation of restricting the term ṣaḥīh exclusively to the hadīth from the Ṣaḥīḥs of al-Bukhārī and Muslim, and his employment of hasan for all other material extracted from books, such as the Sunan of Abū Dāwūd and Jāmī' of al-Tirmidhī, even if the individual hadīth that he has selected from these latter two sources is considered by most critics as authoritative; Muqaddima Ibn al-Ṣalāḥ, 182.

Tadhkira, IV, 43.

¹⁷² Tadhkira, IV, 73.

insightful list of some of the hadīth books that al-Subhī taught both Abū Sa'd al-Sam'ānī and Abū Sa'd's son, 'Abd al-Raḥīm, that includes the Sahīh of Muslim, the Sunan of al-Nasā'ī, the Raqā'iq of Ibn al-Mubārak, and Hilyat al-awliyā' of Abū Nu'aym al-Iṣbahānī. The 'Crown of Islām,' Abū Sa'd 'Abd al-Karīm al-Sam'ānī (d. 562/1167), traveled to hear scholars from Bukhara to Damascus, and even entered Jerusalem during the time of its occupation by the Latin Crusader Kingdom. His famous biographical dictionary, al-Ansāb, is arranged by nisba and aided greatly al-Dhahabī's own historical inquiries. Although Abū Sa'd's son 'Abd al-Raḥīm does not receive an individual biographical notice in the Tadhkira, it should be clear from what al-Dhahabī mentioned of his studies with al-Subhī and his father why Ibn al-Ṣalāḥ traveled all the way to Marw to study with him.

Two final scholars of the first two *tabaqāt* of the sixth phase of *hadīth* scholarship merit mention for the volume of their studies in Syria. Abū l-Faḍl Muḥammad b. Ṭāhir al-Maqdisī (d. 507/1113-4) spent a good portion of his life walking around the Eastern lands and even served as a paid copyist of the *hadīth* books of al-Bukhārī, Muslim, Abū Dāwūd, and Ibn Māja. 174 His two favorite teachers are reported to have been Sa'd b. 'Alī al-Zanjānī in Mecca and the mystic 'Abdullāh al-Anṣārī in Herat. Ibn Ṭāhir was an adherent to the Zāhirī *madhḥab*, and despite his detailed studies of the six canonical *hadīth* books, his reputation was tarnished by his numerous grammatical errors. 175

The other major Syrian scholar of this period is the 'Boast of the *imāms*' (*fakhr al-a'imma*) Abū l-Qāsim 'Alī b. al-Ḥasan Ibn 'Asākir (d. 571/1175). His famous eighty-volume biographical dictionary

¹⁷⁶ Tadhkira, IV, 82. Al-Dhahabī reports that Ibn 'Asākir studied with 1300 male and over 80 female scholars in the course of his lifetime.

Tārīkh madīnat Dimashq has earned the distinction of being one the largest books in Islamic civilization, and his studies with Abū 'Alī al-Hamadhānī and Abū Sa'd al-Sam'ānī facilitated the spread of the knowledge of elevated *isnāds* throughout Syria.

The final tabaga of the sixth phase, as noted previously, is the first one totally bereft of a Shaykh al-Islām in Tadhkirat al-huffāz. Al-Dhahabī does identify three master scholars in al-Mūqiza who lived during this period, and I have selected three other scholars of distinction from Tadhkirat al-huffaz in order to connect this historical survey to the seventh, and final, phase. The first of these men is 'the Scholar of Iraq and Preacher of the horizons' Ibn al-Jawzī (d. 597/1201).177 Al-Dhahabī reports that he had never seen any scholar who composed the sheer number of books as this Baghdādī Ḥanbalī teacher did. Ibn al-Jawzī's book of tarnished hadīth transmitters has been mentioned in the previous chapter as a source for al-Dhahabi's Mīzān al-i'tidāl, and his books on Qur'ānic disciplines, exegesis, and history are standard works of the Islamic library. Al-Dhahabī warns us, though, that the large output of Ibn al-Jawzī was accomplished at the high cost of inaccuracy, and that many of his books are plagued with errors.

The second seventeenth-tabaqa scholar mentioned in al-Mūqiza is Abū Bakr Muḥammad b. Mūsā al-Ḥāzimī (d. 584/1188) who inherited the knowledge of Abū l-'Alā' al-Hamadhānī. 178 Al-Ḥāzimī left his hometown of Hamadhan and settled in Baghdad, where he devoted his considerable talents in the disciplines of hadīth scholarship to the elucidation of the fundamental Shāfi'ī legal book al-Muhadhdhab by Abū Isḥāq al-Shīrāzī. He also composed a book concerning the abrogation of hadīth by other hadīth, expanded the Ikmāl of Ibn Mākūlā, and shared his mastery of genealogies with numerous students.

The final scholar of this period mentioned by al-Dhahabī in al-Mūqiza is the Ḥanbalī 'Abd al-Qādir al-Ruhāwī (d. 612/1215). Born a slave, al-Ruhāwī was manumitted and studied hadīth with Abū l-'Alā' al-Hamadhānī, Ibn 'Asākir, and al-Silafī. 179 His student Ibn Nuqta reports that he was reliable but reluctant to teach hadīth. Some of the fortunate scholars to benefit from his erudition in Harran

¹⁷³ Tadhkira, IV, 75. His students include his son 'Abd al-Raḥīm and Abū l-Qāsim Ibn 'Asākir.

¹⁷⁴ Tadhkira, IV, 27–9.

¹⁷⁵ Recall that Goldziher keenly suggested that Ibn Ṭāhir's large aṭrāf book based on the compilations of al-Bukhārī, Muslim, Abū Dāwūd, al-Tirmidhī, al-Nasā'ī, and Ibn Māja established the foundation for the institution of the 'six canonical Sunnī hadīth books' since it predates by at least a century the Jāmī' al-uṣūl of Majd al-Dīn Ibn al-Athīr and the Kamāl of 'Abd al-Ghanī al-Maqdisī, two books that might also be credited with this accomplishment. This is also the opinion of Muhammad 'Abd al-Ra'ūf; see his article "Ḥadīth Literature—l," The Cambridge History of Arabic Literature: Arabic Literature to the End of the Umayyad Period, I (Cambridge, 1983), 287.

¹⁷⁷ Tadhkira, IV, 92.

¹⁷⁸ Tadhkira, IV, 105.

¹⁷⁹ Tadhkira, IV, 121.

were the Andalusī al-Zakī al-Birzālī and al-Divā' al-Magdisī, both of whom settled in Syria and contributed to the 'Triumph of Syria' in the seventh phase.

Three other scholars of the rather lackluster seventeenth tabaga warrant brief comments. Ibn Bashkuwal Khalaf b. 'Abd al-Malik (d. 578/1182) achieved the title 'Muhaddith al-Andalus' from al-Dhahabī and preserved much useful information about western Islamic scholarship in his history Sila Tārīkh Ibn al-Faradī. 180 Another Andalusī of some importance is the 'Shaykh of the Maghrib' Abū Muhammad Ibn 'Ubayd Allāh (d. 591/1195) of Almeria, who continued the highly refined tradition of the major Qur'anic readings and achieved a mastery of the Sahīh of Muslim. 181 Finally, 'the Muhaddith al-Islām' 'Abd al-Ghanī b. 'Abd al-Wāhid al-Maqdisī (d. 600/1204) synthesized the erudition of al-Silafī and Abū Mūsā al-Madīnī, and his biographical dictionary al-Kamāl contributed to the institution of the six canonical Sunnī hadīth books. 182 His students unquestionably contributed to the 'triumph of Syria' in the seventh phase, as they included the recently mentioned 'Abd al-Qādir Ruhāwī, al-Diyā' al-Magdisī, and Abū 'Abdullāh al-Yūnīnī.

It is clear from this brief historical survey that the master hadīth scholars of the sixth phase devoted their energies to the compilation of biographical dictionaries and analyses of what gradually became known as the 'six canonical Sunnī hadīth books.' While Ibn 'Asākir and Ibn al-Jawzī may have set new records in size and quantity of book production, few men left works that were not thoroughly reworked and improved by master scholars during the Mamlūk period. 183 The seminal books of Abū Muhammad al-Baghawī, Abū Sa'd al-Sam'ānī and Qādī 'Iyād did stand the test of time, although these appear to be exceptions to the rule. While the sixth phase of hadīth scholarship does include several dozen scholars of a high caliber, it appears to have been primarily a period of transition from the age of original composition and criticism to one of synthesis, organization, and historical reflection.

III.8 Phase 7: The triumph of Syria (c. 600-720/1203-1320)

Al-Dhahabī devotes remarkably little space in Tadhkirat al-huffāz to the scholars of the four final tabagāt. It appears that the catastrophic impact of the Mongol invasions of the cities of Central Asia and Khurāsān may be the most likely cause for the nearly total absence of master hadith scholars from anywhere east of Iraq during this period. 184 These calamities in the east, as well as the fall of Cordoba and Seville in the west, appear to have led to a consolidation of hadīth scholars in Syria as well as Egypt. Four of the six Shuyūkh al-Islām of the last four tabaqāt lived in Syria, and the remaining two spent the better parts of their lives in Egypt. The impact of the madrasa is also visible in this period, as the majority of the scholars in this section appear to have held teaching posts at many of these new schools. Finally, the trends of synthesis and historical compilation seem to have fully eclipsed the tradition of hadīth compilation during this period, and there is a marked rise in quality and quantity of books concerning the hadīth disciplines.

Six master scholars of the eighteenth and nineteenth tabaqāt dominated the field of hadīth scholarship. I have already discussed the importance of the Shaykh al-Islām Ibn al-Ṣalāḥ in the course of my discussion of his authoritative classification of the hadīth disciplines earlier in this book, and have stressed the importance of his role in the transfer of works such as al-Bayhagi's al-Sunan al-kubrā from pre-Mongol Khurāsān to Ayyūbid Syria. The other Shaykh al-Islām of this period, 'Abd al-'Azīm b. 'Abd al-Qawiyy al-Mundhirī (d. 656/1258) left his native Gaza to teach at al-Dar al-Kamiliyya in Cairo and

¹⁸⁰ Tadhkira, IV, 90. The list of Ibn Bashkuwal's book titles indicates his interest in the lives of important early hadīth scholars, such as al-A'mash, Ibn al-Mubārak, Ibn 'Uyavna, and al-Nasā'ī.

¹⁸¹ Tadhkira, IV, 110.

¹⁸² Tadhkira, IV, 111.

¹⁸³ Two examples that first come to mind are the Ikmāl of Ibn Mākūlā, which was ultimately rendered irrelevant by the prosopographical works of al-Nawawi, al-Dhahabī, and Ibn Ḥajar, and the Kamāl of 'Abd al-Ghanī al-Magdisī, which was edited meticulously and vastly expanded by some 1700 entries by al-Mizzī.

¹⁸¹ The devastation of the Mongols in the form of the the first Muslim Ilkhān, Ghāzān, even reached Damascus in 699/1299-1300, as al-Dhahabī lists several dozen casualties in the twenty-first tabaga of Tadhkirat al-huffaz and claims to have mentioned over 190 scholars who perished during this year in Tānkh al-Islām; Tadhkira, 186-7. The Ilkhānid occupation lasted barely five months, although Ghāzān did invade Syria again in the winter of 700/1300-1 and in 702/1303; see P. M. Holt, The Age of the Crusades (New York: Longman, 1986), 110-11. For more about Ghāzān, see David Morgan, Medieval Persia 1040-1797 (New York: Longman, 1988), 72-7.

compiled a famous hadīth work in the genre of pious exhortations titled Kītāb al-targhīb wa l-tarhīb. 185 The 'Shavkh of the Sunna' al-Divā' Muhammad b. 'Abd al-Wāhid (d. 643/1245) studied with Ibn al-Jawzī and 'Abd al-Rahīm b. Abī Sa'd al-Sam'ānī, and is reported to have made two trips to the sixth-phase capital of hadīth erudition, Isfahan. 186 Abū 'Abdullāh Muhammad al-Ba'lbakkī al-Hanbalī (d. 658/1261), known as al-Yūnīnī, was a major student of 'Abd al-Ghanī al-Magdisī and was rumored to have memorized both the Sahīh of Muslim and the better part of the Musnad of Ibn Hanbal. 187 Another Hanbalī of renown during this period was the 'Muhaddith of Iraq' Ibn Nuqta (d. 629/1232), a pupil of Ibn al-Jawzī and al-Ruhāwī, and the compiler of a supplement to Ibn Mākūlā's Ikmāl. 188 Finally, the 'scholar of the Maghrib,' Ibn Sayyid al-Nās (d. 659/1261), is the only nineteenth-tabaga scholar identified in al-Mūqiza and was held in particularly high esteem for his transmission of Abū Dharr al-Harawī's recension of the Sahīh of al-Bukhārī. 189 The total absence of original hadīth compilations by these master scholars is evident, and appears to confirm Ibn al-Salāh's previously cited opinion in the Muqaddima concerning the inadmissibility of hadīth that are not found in any of the major books of the earlier eras. 190

CHAPTER THREE

The universal reluctance of the master hadīth scholars of the eighteenth and nineteenth tabaqāt to compile hadīth books stimulated a major resurgence in biographical dictionaries and histories. The most famous historian of this period was the 'Boast of the scholars,' 'Izz

al-Dīn Ibn al-Athīr (d. 630/1233), author of the universal history al-Kāmil, and the dictionary of sahāba based upon the books of Ibn 'Abd al-Barr, Ibn Manda, Abū Nu'aym al-Iṣfahānī, and Abū Mūsā al-Madīnī. 191 One of Ibn al-Athīr's students, the 'Historian of Iraq' Abū 'Abdullāh Muhammad al-Dubaythī (d. 637/1240), composed a large history of Wāsit and an appendix to Abū Sa'd al-Sam'ānī's history of Baghdad. 192 The 'Historian of the Age' Ibn al-Najjār (d. 643/1245) followed in the path of his teacher Ibn al-Jawzī and composed a plethora of historical-biographical works, including a sixteen volume addition to al-Khatīb's Tārīkh Baghdād. 193 Much of the historical material of these latter two scholars probably was lost during the infamous sack of Baghdad by Hulegu in 656/1258, and the severe consequences of this traumatic event on the Sunnī tradition of hadīth scholarship are perhaps nowhere better illustrated than in al-Dhahabī's agonizing list of obituaries at the end of the biographical notice of al-Mundhiri. 194

Given the paucity of information that al-Dhahabī provides for the master hadīth scholars of the final two tabaqāt of the Tadhkira, and the fact that the majority of them were his teachers or contemporaries, it is appropriate to close this historical survey of the first seven centuries of Sunnī hadīth scholarship by returning to a basic question: How does this name-saturated discussion contribute to the primary goal of this book, namely the investigation into the emergence of Sunnī Islam in the third/ninth century? Why were we wandering around Herat and Cordoba in the fifth/eleventh century when the primary sources for the remainder of this book are third/ninth century books by three Baghdadī scholars?

The first justification for this historical adventure is that it is a direct response to the overwhelmingly ahistorical approach to the hadith literature in Western Islamic Studies. One searches in vain for a description of the history of Sunnī hadīth scholarship over its first six or seven centuries in a European language. Modern academics are not entirely to blame for this situation, since one of the most popular books of hadīth criticism, Ibn Hajar's Tahdhīb al-tahdhīb, is itself ahistorical in its mode of presentation: an entry often contains critical opinions of a scholar from the eighth tabaqa, like Ibn Hanbal, followed

¹⁸⁵ Tadhkira, IV, 153. This book, which does not include isnāds, is based upon hadīth found in the 'Six books' (minus Ibn Māja), the Muwatta' of Mālik, Musnads of Ibn Hanbal, Abū Ya'lā al-Mawsilī, and al-Bazzāz, the three Mu'jams of al-Țabarānī, Şaḥīḥ of Ibn Ḥibbān, and al-Mustadrak of al-Ḥākim al-Naysābūrī; see 'Abd al-Ra'ūf, "Hadīth Literature-1," 282.

¹⁸⁶ Tadhkira, IV, 133.

¹⁸⁷ Tadhkira, IV, 155. Al-Yūnīnī appears to have been a mystic, for al-Dhahabī states that he "combined the disciplines of divine law (sharia) and mystical verification haqiqa ...

Tadhkira, IV, 138.

¹⁸⁹ Tadhkira, IV, 161-2. Al-Dhahabī obtained Ibn Sayyid al-Nās's transmission of Abū Dharr's recension of al-Bukhārī's Sahīḥ by ijāza from one of Ibn Sayyid al-Nās's pupils.

¹⁹⁰ See above, II.1. One major hadīth scholar absent from Tadhkirat al-huffāz who contributed to the 'triumph of Syria' is Yūsuf b. Khalīl (d. 648/1250) who settled in Aleppo. Yūsuf transported many large hadīth books from his native Isfahan to Syria: al-Dhahabī mentions Hilyat al-awliyā', al-Tabarānī's al-Mu'jam al-kabīr, Ibn Sa'd's al-Tabagāt al-kabīr, al-Dāraqutnī's Sunan, al-Taḥāwī's al-Āthār, and al-Tayālisī's Musnad, among others, Siyar, XXIII, 151-5. Note that the primary surviving recension of Ibn Sa'd's al-Tabagāt al-kabīr is the one that Yūsuf transmitted.

¹⁹¹ Tadhkira, IV, 129.

¹⁹² Tadhkira, IV, 139. He was also a master of the variant Qur'anic readings, poetry and adab.

¹⁹³ Tadhkira, IV, 147. 191 Tadhkira, IV, 154.

by one from the tenth *tabaqa*, like al-Nasā'ī, juxtaposed with the likes of Ibn Ḥibbān (twelfth *tabaqa*), Abū Ḥātim al-Rāzī (ninth *tabaqa*) and Yaḥyā l-Qaṭṭān (seventh *tabaqa*). While alphabetically-arranged Mamlūk-era critical biographical dictionaries are extremely useful reference works for the identification of names in *isnāds*, they are of limited utility for the historian of the earlier periods of Islamic civilization who wishes to comprehend how a particular scholar fits into the greater narrative of Sunnī *ḥadīth* transmission.

A second reason for this survey is to demonstrate that the history of Sunnī hadīth scholarship is far more than the story of the compilation of the 'six canonical books.' It is imperative for the student of Islam to recognize that the Sunnī hadīth literature entered its richest phases after the compilation of these exalted books. My historical investigation vividly illustrates the explosive growth in the hadīth library that occurred in the fourth/tenth and fifth/eleventh centuries, as well as the shift from 'original' compilations to historical works during the course of the fourth through sixth phases. Finally, the fact that the peak period of hadīth-transmitter criticism took place during the century after the compilation of the two Sahīhs of al-Bukhārī and Muslim demonstrates the importance of investigating the origins of this two-century process in order to understand the foundation upon which these later scholars constructed their books.

The final goal of this seven-century survey is to demonstrate the existence of individual personalities in the history of hadīth transmission. Hodgson's largely faceless 'piety-minded' scholars and al-Mizzī's endless lists of names tend to obscure the humanity of hadīth scholars and their personal qualities that make them distinct from one another. Al-Dhahabī's Tadhkirat al-huffāz offers a truly eclectic crowd of hadīth scholars, from Ṣūfīs to qādīs, and Mālikīs to Zāhirīs, and sheds light on individuals with charismatic personalities, such as Ibn al-Mubārak, Ibn Ḥanbal, Ibn Ḥibbān, and Ibn Ḥazm. Certainly any of the major scholars whose books are found in the Sunnī hadīth library merits the sort of attention that Western academics invest in al-Shāfī'ī, al-Ghazālī, Ibn 'Arabī, and Ibn Khaldūn, for there is much more to Islamic thought than the principles of jurisprudence, mystical states, and the philosophy of history.

CHAPTER FOUR

IDENTIFICATION AND ANALYSIS OF THE MASTER SUNNĪ *ḤADĪTH* CRITICS

IV.1

The goal of this chapter is to identify and analyze the most significant hadīth critics of the nascent Sunnī tradition. While the seven-phase periodization that I articulated in the previous chapter relied exclusively upon the opinions of al-Dhahabī, this new task involves listening to the opinions of an additional nine scholars who were his predecessors. These ten sources yield a group of ninety-two men who lived in three century-long periods that dovetail more or less with the second through fourth phases of the aforementioned periodization. I have identified three qualitative grades of critics, namely primary, secondary, and 'other,' on the basis of the frequency by which each individual scholar is mentioned in the ten sources. The final section of this chapter elucidates the nature of the first period critics, reviews the role of al-Shāfi'ī in the development of hadīth scholarship, and argues for the plausibility of the historical narrative concerning the second/eight century origins of hadīth criticism as depicted in the classical Sunnī tradition.

IV.2 Sources

The sources for this chapter include seven lists and three *tabaqāt* presentations. Each list consists of little more than the names of a set of master *ḥadāth* scholars who are usually identified as critics. The *tabaqāt* presentations are substantially larger and two of them preserve both biographical information and critical opinions of each scholar. The *tabaqāt* presentations tend also to include a greater number of entries than the lists, and two of them even include entries for *ṣaḥāba* and *tābi'ān*. The following outline provides an overview of the ten sources, each of which shall be described in the next few pages.

 $^{^{195}}$ Note that $Tahdh\bar{u}b$ al-tahdh $\bar{u}b$ was the primary text studied by Juynboll for his book $Muslim\ Tradition$.

II.

I. Lists

A) 'Alī b. al-Madīnī	(d. 234/849) ¹	24 men
B) Muslim b. al-Ḥajjāj	$(d. 261/874)^2$	5 men
C) al-Ḥākim al-Naysābūrī	$(d. 405/1014)^3$	9 men
D) al-Khaṭīb al-Baghdādī	(d. 463/1071) ⁴	16 men
E) Ibn al-Jawzī	(d. 597/1201) ⁵	l6 men
F) al-Mizzī	$(d. 742/1341)^6$	10 books
G) al-Dhahabī	$(d. 748/1348)^7$	23 men
Ţabaqāt presentations		
A) Ibn Abī Ḥātim	(d. 327/939) ⁸	4 generations,
	,	18 men
B) Ibn Ḥibbān	(d. 354/965) ⁹	7 generations,
		44 men
C) Ibn 'Adī	$(d. 365/996)^{10}$	6 generations,
		= 0

IV.2.1 Lists

'Alī b. al-Madīnī's list enjoys the distinction of being both the earliest and most widely cited list in both Muslim and non-Muslim works. It consists of three groups of scholars and has been presented by Dickinson as the following:¹¹

73 men

The <i>ishaa</i> revolves around:	
l) Medina: al-Zuhrī	(d. 124/742)
2) Mecca: 'Amr b. Dīnar	(d. 126/744)
3) Basra: Qatāda b. Di'āma	(d. 117/735)
4) Basra: Yaḥyā b. Abī Kathīr	(d. 132/749)
5) Kufa: Abū Isḥāq al-Sabī'ī	(d. 127/745)
6) Kufa: al-A'mash	(d. 148/765)
Those who composed books:	
l) Medina: Mālik b. Anas	(d. 179/795)
2) Medina: Muḥammad b. Isḥāq	(d. 150/767)
3) Mecca: Ibn Jurayj	(d. 150/767)
4) Mecca: Ibn 'Uyayna	(d. 198/813)
5) Basra: Sa'īd b. Abī 'Arūba	(d. 156/773)
6) Ḥammād b. Salama	(d. 167/784)
7) Abū 'Awāna	(d. 176/792)
8) Shuʻba b. al-Ḥajjāj	(d. 160/776)
9) Ma'mar b. Rāshid	(d. 153/770)
10) Kufa: Sufyān al-Thawrī	(d. 161/778)
ll) Damascus: al-Awzāʿī	(d. 157/774)
12) Wāsiṭ: Hushaym b. Bashīr	(d. 183/799)
Their knowledge went to	
l) Yaḥyā b. Saʻīd al-Qaṭṭān	(d. 198/813)
2) Yaḥyā b. Abī Zā'ida	(d. 182/798)
3) Wakī' b. al-Jarrāḥ	(d. 197/813)
4) Ibn al-Mubārak	(d. 181/797)
5) 'Abd al-Raḥmān b. Mahdī	(d. 198/814)
6) Yaḥyā b. Ādam	(d. 203/818)
	,

The isnad revolves around:

Two of the sources indicate that the knowledge of all of these men was transmitted to Ibn Ma'īn, and al-Dhahabī adds the following epilogue:

[This knowledge also passed on to] Ibn Ḥanbal, Abū Bakr Ibn Abī Shayba, and 'Alī b. al-Madīnī; then to al-Bukhārī, Abū Ḥātim, Abū Zur'a, and Abū Dāwūd; then to al-Nasā'ī, Muḥammad b. Naṣr al-Marwazī, Ibn Khuzayma, Ibn Jarīr (al-Ṭabarī); then it began to decrease, little by little, and there is no might save by God!¹²

These sources include: Ibn Abī Ḥātim al-Rāzī, Taqdima (Hyderabad, 1952), 17, 129, 187, 220, 234–5, 252, 264 (all fragmentary except that found on 234–5); Ibn Ḥibbān, Kītāb al-majrūhīn, I (Aleppo: Dār Wa'y, 1396), 55; Ibn 'Adī, al-Kāmil fi du'aſā' al-rijāl, I (Beirut: Dār al-Fikr, 1985), 132, 167 (in a truncated variant); al-Dhahabī, Siyar a'lām al-nubalā', XI, 78. Western sources include Nabia Abbott, Studies in Arabic Literary Papyri, vol. II, 80; Juynboll, Muslim Tradition, 164; and Eerik Dickinson, The Development of Early Sumite Ḥadīth Criticism, 50–1. These latter two scholars report to have obtained this list from a 1974 Beirut publication of the 'Ilal of Ibn al-Madīnī that I have not been able to consult.

² Ṣaḥīḥ Muslim bi-sharḥ al-Nawawī, I, 59.

Ma'rifat 'ulum'al-hadith, 46-7.

¹ Al-Kifāya fī 'ilm al-riwāya, ed. Ahmad 'Umar Hāshim (Beirut, 1986), 109.

Kītāb al-du'afā' wa l-matrukīn, ed. Abū l-Fidā' 'Abdullāh al-Qādī, I (Beirut: Dār al-Kutub al-'Ilmiyya, 1986), 7.

⁶ Tahdhīb al-kamāl, ed. Bashshār 'Awwād Ma'rūf, I (Beirut: Mu'assasa al-Risāla, 1980), 153-4.

⁷ See above, Table 2.1.

⁸ Taqdima, 11-374.

[&]quot; Kītāb al-mairūhīn, I, 25-60.

[&]quot; Al-Kāmil, I, 59-147.

¹¹ Dickinson, The Development of Early Sunnite Ḥadīth Criticism, 50-1. (Some dates have been modified.)

¹² Siyar, XI, 78 and Melchert, The Formation of the Sunnī Schools of Law, 30-1.

It is significant to note that 'Ali b. al-Madīnī does not claim that any of these scholars were hadīth critics per se; rather, he indicates only that they were major compilers of the material. We shall see in the course of our analysis that ten of these twenty-four men are mentioned only in this list and, consequently, do not appear to have been considered critics by later generations of Sunnī scholars.

The second list is found in the introduction of Muslim b. al-Ḥajjāj's Ṣahīḥ, a work that I have mentioned is one of the most prestigious Sunnī books in our discussion of the third phase of hadīth compilation. Muslim identifies five men—Shu'ba b. al-Ḥajjāj, Mālik b. Anas, Ibn 'Uyayna, Yaḥyā b. Sa'īd al-Qaṭṭān, and 'Abd al-Raḥmān b. Mahdī—as the "Imāms of the hadīth folk" who "criticize" (dhamma) the transmission of hadīth from "ignoramuses" (aghbiyā') and "unsatisfactory people" (qawm ghayr mardiyyīn)." This list is the shortest of our ten sources, although Muslim makes it clear that it is not exhaustive. Despite its brevity, Muslim's list is particularly important because it is the earliest one to identify explicitly a group of scholars as hadīth critics, and it does so a mere two generations after the deaths of two of the men enumerated in it, namely Yaḥyā l-Qaṭṭān and Ibn Mahdī.

The third list comes from the end of the fourth period of hadīth compilation and is found in the fifteenth topic of al-Ḥākim al-Naysābūrī's paradigm-setting book of hadīth disciplines, Ma'rīfat 'ulūm al-ḥadīth. Al-Ḥākim uses the same language as his predecessor Ibn Ḥibbān in describing Mālik, al-Awzā'ī, Sufyān al-Thawrī, Shu'ba and Ibn Jurayj as "Imāms of the Muslims and jurists of the new Islamic cities (amṣār)." The remaining four scholars include the pri-

13 ... anna kathīran mimmā yaqdhifūna bi-hi ilā l-aghbiyā'i min al-nāsi huwa mustankarun wa manqūlun 'an qawmin ghayri mardiyyīn mimman dhamma l-riwāyati 'anhum a'immatu ahli-l-hadīthi mithlu Mālik & Anas ...; Saḥīh Muslim bi-sharh al-Nawawī, I, 59.

mary critics Yaḥyā l-Qaṭṭān and Ibn al-Mubārak as well as the unique mention of the jurist Muḥammad b. al-Ḥasan al-Shaybānī and ascetic Ibrāhīm b. Ṭahmān. Although al-Ḥākim does not elucidate what exactly he means by the expression "Imāms of the Muslims," his usage of the expression "Imām" is in itself of interest, and I shall endeavor to shed some light on its implications in the third section of this chapter.

Al-Khaṭīb al-Baghdādī's list includes all five of the Imāms mentioned by Muslim in the introduction to his Ṣaḥīḥ in addition to six of the nine men recorded by al-Ḥākim al-Naysābūrī. The sixteen men of this list are described as being "so widely recognized as sound and reliable that one cannot dispute the integrity of [their] probity." This list extends from al-Awzāʿī to Ibn Ḥanbal, and the fact that only two of the men included are unique to it among the ten sources indicates that it contain a very high percentage of ḥadīth critics. 17

We observed earlier that the author of the next list, Ibn al-Jawzī, was one of the few sixth-period master <code>hadīth</code> scholars and the only authoritative critic listed by al-Dhahabī in <code>Mīzān al-i'tidāl</code> after al-Ḥākim al-Naysābūrī. Fourteen of Ibn al-Jawzī's sixteen "great Imāms... who declared [weak <code>hadīth</code> transmitters] unreliable (<code>jarraḥahum</code>)" are included among al-Dhahabī's twenty-three critics in the <code>Mīzān</code>, a finding that indicates a high degree of consensus between these later critics. ¹⁸

The final new list in this chapter consists of books instead of men. Abū Yūsuf al-Mizzī identifies four primary and six secondary sources of classical hadīth-transmitter criticism upon which he has based his chef d'oevre, the massive Tahdhīb al-kamāl. The four primary sources are Ibn Abī Ḥātim's al-Jarḥ wa l-ta'dīl, Ibn 'Adī's al-Kāmil fī du'afā'

¹⁴ He does this by means of the comment "and others among the Imāms" (wa ghayrihim min al-a'imma) that follows immediately after the last of the five enumerated Imāms. Note also a second list of Imāms who scrutinized isnāds in Muslim's introduction to his Saḥīḥ that consists of Ayyūb, Ibn 'Awn, Mālik, Shu'ba, Yaḥyā l-Qaṭṭān, and 'Abd al-Raḥmān b. Mahdī, Saḥīḥ Muslim bi-sharḥ al-Nawawī, I, 122.

Ma'rifat 'ulūm al-hadīth, 46-7. Ibn Ḥibbān uses this exact same expression with reference to the first four of al-Ḥākim's five named men as well as Ḥammād b. Salama, al-Layth b. Sa'd, Ḥammād b. Zayd, and Ibn 'Uyayna, in Kūāb al-majrūhīn, I, 40. Although amṣār is usually translated as "garrison cities", I think that "new Islamic cities" better reflects the meaning in this context, as it distinguishes pre-Islamic cities that were settled by Muslims from those that were founded during

the Islamic conquests and were more significant in the long run as centers of Islamic civilization than military outposts.

¹⁶ bābu l-muḥaddithi l-mashhūri bi-l-'adālati wa l-thiqati wa l-amānati lā yuḥtāju ilā tazki-yati al-muʿaddil; al-Khaṭīb, al-Kījāya, 109. Recall that Ibn al-Ṣalāḥ selected the best critics from among this list in his Muqaddima; see above, II.2, note 71.

¹⁷ The two unique names are Yazīd b. Hārūn and 'Affān b. Muslim. The remaining fourteen men are al-Awzā'ī, Shu'ba, Sufyān al-Thawrī, al-Layth b. Sa'd, Ḥammād b. Zayd, Mālik b. Anas, Ibn al-Mubārak, Ibn 'Uyayna, Wakī' b. al-Jarrāḥ, 'Abd al-Raḥmān b. Mahdī, Yaḥyā l-Qaṭṭān, Ibn Ma'īn, 'Alī b. al-Madīnī, and Ibn Ḥanbal; al-Khatīb, al-Kūfāya, 109.

¹⁸ The only two critics whom al-Dhahabī does not mention in *Mīzān al-itidāl* are 'Alī b. Ḥusayn b. Junayd al-Rāzī (d. 291/904) and Zakariyyā b. Yaḥyā al-Sājī (d. 307/919) and are unique to Ibn al-Jawzī's list.

al-rijāl, al-Khaṭīb al-Baghdādī's Tārīkh Baghdād, and Ibn 'Asākir's Tārīkh madīnat Dimashq. Al-Mizzī advises the ambitious hadīth scholar who remains insatiated after these hundred or so volumes to consult the following six books for critical opinions of early scholars: Ibn Sa'd's al-Ṭabaqāt al-kabīr, Ibn Abī Khaythama's Tārīkh, Ibn Ḥibbān's al-Thiqāt, Abū Sa'īd 'Abd al-Raḥmān b. Aḥmad's Tārīkh Miṣr, al-Ḥākim al-Naysābūrī's Tārīkh Naysābūr, and Abū Nu'aym al-Iṣbahānī's Tārīkh Iṣbāhān. I have already mentioned the majority of these books in the course of our seven-period periodization of hadīth compilation, and four of these authors furnished lists or tabaqāt presentations that I made use of in this chapter.

IV.2.2 Tabagāt presentations

The three tabaqāt presentations are by scholars who were contemporaries with one other and bridge the one and a half century lacuna between the lists of Muslim b. al-Ḥajjāj and al-Ḥākim al-Naysābūrī. Ibn Abī Ḥātim's Tagdima is, paradoxically, by far the longest of the three tabaqat presentations and yet consists of the smallest number of men. The eighteen entries are identified explicitly as "expert scholar critics" (al-'ulamā' al-jahābidha al-nuqqād) and are arranged into four generations. The greater part of the volume is allotted for the six first-generation master critics, namely Mālik b. Anas, Sufvān b. 'Uyayna, Sufyān al-Thawrī, Shu'ba b. al-Hajjāj, Hammād b. Zayd, and al-Awzā'ī. The second generation consists of six prominent students of these master scholars who in turn taught Ibn Hanbal, Ibn Ma'ın, 'Alı b. al-Madını, and Ibn Numayr. 19 Only Abu Zur'a al-Rāzī and Abū Hātim al-Rāzī grace the fourth and final tabaga of Tagdima, a fact that testifies to their deep influence upon their virtuoso pupil Ibn Abī Ḥātim. Despite the fascinating array of material preserved in the Tagdima, ranging from nine letters sent by al-Awzā'ī to various 'Abbasid administrators, to 139 reports of Shu'ba's hadīthtransmitter criticism, to an elegy for Ibn Ma'īn, Eerik Dickinson is correct in his observation that "nowhere does Ibn Abī Hātim explicitly delineate the criteria he employed in selecting the scholars for the *Taqdima*."²⁰ This ambiguity has led Dickinson to a rather radical, and, in my opinion, weak, argument that Ibn Abī Ḥātim cast the first generation of scholars as *ḥadīth* critics in order to give the discipline of *ḥadīth* criticism a greater veneer of authenticity and historical depth.²¹ Despite my skepticism regarding Dickinson's hypothesis, I do agree that the question he has raised concerning the authenticity of the critical nature of the first generation of Ibn Abī Ḥātim's *ḥadīth*-transmitter critics is a most valid line of inquiry and one that I will address in the appropriate place in this chapter.

lbn Hibbān's tabaqāt presentation in Kītāb al-majrūhīn is the most useful tabaqāt presentation for this project because it includes a description of the activities of each of the seven generations of scholars. The first generation consists of three sahāba who merely "scrutinized" (fattasha) the men in transmissions and was followed by a group of ten Medinan tābi vūn.²² The third generation includes four additional Medinan scholars who "selected men (inqitā' al-rijāl) and traveled to collect sunan," and Ibn Hibbān explicitly states that the greatest of them was al-Zuhrī.²³ Ibn Hibbān asserts that the fourth generation not only preserved the material and techniques of their teachers, but introduced the practices of declaring weak transmitters unreliable (al-qadh fī l-duʿafā') and "transmitter criticism" (intiqād al-rijāl). He identifies eight members of a "group of Imāms of the Muslims and jurists of religion" and explicitly credits Mālik, Shu'ba, and Sufyān al-Thawrī

¹⁹ These six second-generation students are Wakī' b. al-Jarrāh, Yahyā b. Sa'īd al-Qaṭṭān, 'Abd al-Raḥmān b. Mahdī, Ibn al-Mubārak, Abū Isḥāq al-Fazārī, and Abū Mushir 'Abd al-A'lā.

²⁰ Dickinson, The Development of Early Sunnite Hadith Criticism, 49.

²¹ "Although the association of hadīth criticism with certain famous figures increased its prestige, this association did carry a price since it undermined the integrity of hadīth criticism. In making early scholars like Mālik, Awzā'ī and Shu'ba critics, Ibn Abī Ḥātim and his colleagues brought upon themselves the obligation of coming to terms with the alleged critical judgments, many of which were wholly inconsistent with findings of later critics" (emphases mine); Dickinson, The Development of Early Sunnite Hadīth Criticism, 128.

²⁵ The sahāba are 'Umar, 'Alī, and Ibn 'Abbās; the Medinan tābi'ūn are 'Alī b. al-Husayn b. 'Alī, Sa'īd b. al-Musayyab, Abū Bakr b. 'Abd al-Raḥmān, 'Urwa b. al-Zubayr, 'Ubayd Allāh b. 'Abdullāh b. 'Utba, Abū Salama b. 'Abd al-Raḥmān, Khārija b. Zayd b. Thābit, Sulaymān b. Yasār, al-Qāsim b. Muḥammad b. Abī Bakr, Sālim b. 'Abdullāh b. 'Umar; Kītāb al-majrūhīn, I, 37-9.

²³ The other three scholars are Sa'd b. Ibrāhīm b. 'Abd al-Raḥmān b. 'Awf, Yaḥyā b. Sa'īd al-Anṣārī, and Hishām b. 'Urwa; Kītāb al-majrūḥīn, I, 39. Note that these men collected "sunan" and not hadīth; the plural form of sunna is often equated with hadīth (for example, the four canonical Sunan books are hadīth compilations) but seems to have a narrower meaning more akin to "laws" than the broader concept of hadīth, which includes reports and actions attributed to the Prophet on any conceivable topic.

with the transformation of general hadīth criticism into a craft (sinā'a).24

Ibn Hibban informs us that the fifth generation of scholars learned "how to scrutinize the paths of transmission" and he identifies Yahvā l-Oattan and Ibn Mahdī as the two men who "[performed] the most investigation (tangir), and were the most willing to reject weak and rejected transmitters, to the point that they made this discipline into a craft (sinā'a)."25 This craft reached an even higher level of scrutiny (taftīsh) and clarification (tabyīn) in the hands of seven "Imāms" of the sixth generation, three of whom were distinguished by the magnitude of their erudition in the field of hadith-transmitter criticism. 26 Ibn Hibbān concludes his tabaqāt presentation in Kītāb al-maṛrūhīn with six equally skilled teachers among his own instructors who perpetuated the "technique of criticizing reports and examining transmitters."27 The significance of Ibn Hibban's seven-tabaqat presentation should be clear from the author's insightful descriptions of the members of each generation as well as the identification and biographical information of nine exceptional critics among the forty-four men.

The final source for this effort to elucidate the emergence of Sunnī hadīth criticism through the identification of the master critics is Ibn 'Adī's six-generation tabaqāt presentation found in the introduction

²⁴ illā anna min ashaddihim [i]ntiqā'an li-l-sunan wa aktharihim muwāzabatan 'alayhā hattā ja'alū dhālika sinā'atan lahum lā yashūbūnahā bi-shay'in ākharin thalāthata anfusin: Mālik, wa l-Thawrī, wa Shu'ba; Kītāb al-majrūhīn, I, 40. The other five scholars of the fourth generation are al-Awzā'ī, Ḥammād b. Salama, al-Layth b. Sa'd, Ḥammād b. Zayd, and Ibn 'Uyayna. Note that this opinion contradicts Dickinson's just-cited accusation that Mālik, al-Thawrī, and Shu'ba were "imagined" critics in the mind of Ibn Abī Ḥātim and is a useful piece of evidence in support of the traditional narrative of the origins of Sunnī hadīth criticism.

25 illā anna min aktharihim tanqīran 'an sha'ni l-muhaddithīn wa atrakihim lil-du'afā'i wa l-matrūkīn hattā ja'alū hādhā l-sha'na sinā'atan lahum lam yata'addawhā ilā ghayrihā ma'a luzūmi l-dīni wa-l-wara'i l-shadīdi wa l-nafaqati fi l-sunan rajulān. Yahyā ibn Sa'īd al-Qaṭṭān wa 'Abd al-Raḥmān ibn Mahdī; Kītāb al-majrūhīn, I, 52. The other three critics of this

generation are Ibn al-Mubārak, Wakī', and al-Shāfi'ī.

²⁷ The six critics of the last generation are 'Abdullāh al-Dārimī, Muslim b. al-Ḥajjāj, al-Bukhārī, Abū Zur'a al-Rāzī, Muḥammad al-Dhuhlī, and Abū Dāwūd al-Sijistānī; Kītāb al-majrūhīn, I, 57.

of al-Kāmil fī du'afā' al-rijāl. Ibn 'Adī states at the end of his seventy-three man list that

I have mentioned the names of those scholars among the Companions, Successors, and the following men, generation by generation to our day, who, in their own right, are allowed to give opinions concerning [hadīth] transmitters or who assert themselves to be qualified to do this and who memorize the [names of the] reliable and unreliable transmitters.²⁸

Only seven of the seventy-three scholars receive substantial entries from Ibn 'Adī: al-Zuhrī, Ayyūb al-Sakhtiyānī, and al-A'mash among the $t\bar{a}bi'\bar{u}n$; Shu'ba and Sufyān al-Thawrī in the following generation; and 'Abd al-Raḥmān b. Mahdī and al-Shāfi'ī in the fourth one.²⁹ Twenty-four of the names of scholars who died after 120/738 are found exclusively in Ibn 'Adī's *ṭabaqāt* presentation, an observation that suggests a rather loose standard for inclusion on the part of the author.

IV.3 Analysis: Three periods and seven generations of Sunnī ḥadīth critics

The ninety-two names generated by these ten sources that have just been introduced can be arranged easily into three chronological periods and a tripartite hierarchy. The first period extends from 100–200 AH (718–815), the second one from 200–300 (815–912), and the final one from 300–400 (912–1009). The second and third periods of critics are identical to the third and fourth phases that I articulated in the previous chapter, while the first period of critics includes the senior members of the first phase along with the entire second phase. The hierarchy of critics is based upon the frequency by which names are mentioned among the sources, although it is important to note that only al-Dhahabī's list in Mīzān al-i'tidāl includes

thumma akhadhā an ha'ulā'i maslaka l-hadīthi wa l-ikhtibāri wa l-intiqā'i fī l-āthāri hattā raḥalū fī jam'i l-sunan ilā l-amṣāri wa fattashū l-muduna wa l-aqṭāra wa aṭlaqū 'alā l-matrūkīn al-jarḥa wa 'alā l-du'afā'i l-qadḥa wa bayyanū kayfiyyata ahwāli l-thiqāti wa l-mudallisīn wa l-a'immati wa l-matrūkīn hattā ṣārū yuqtadā bi-him fī l-āthāri wa a'immatun yuslaku maslakuhum fī l-akhbāri jamā'atun minhum (seven names) . . . illā anna min awra'i-him fī l-dīni wa aktharihim taftīshan 'alā l-matrūkīn wa alzamihim li-hādhihi l-ṣinā'ati 'alā dā'imi l-awqāti minhum kāna Aḥmad ibn Ḥanbal, Yahyā ibn Ma'īn, wa 'Alī ibn al-Madīnī; Kītāb al-majrūḥīn, I, 54. The remaining four critics are Abū Khaythama Zuhayr b. Harb, 'Ubayd b. 'Umar al-Qawarīrī, Ibn Abī Shayba, and Ibn Rāhawayh.

²⁸ qad dhakartu asāmiya man istajāza li-nafsihi l-kalāma fī l-rijāli min al-saḥāba wa l-tābi^cīn wa man ba^cdahum ṭabaqatan ṭabaqatan, ilā yawminā hādhā aw man naṣaba nafsahu li-dhālika wa ḥufiza ^canhu min al-thiqāt wa l-dɨ^cāf; al-Kāmil fī du^cafā^c al-rijāl, I, 147.

²⁹ Note that seven of these seventy-three scholars are sahāba and twenty-two are tāhī ūn.

³⁰ I have selected 120/738 as a cut-off death date for this analysis in order to exclude the numerous saḥāba and tābišūn who are recorded in the tabaqāt presentations of Ibn Ḥibbān and Ibn 'Adī and are probably included because of the nature of the tabaqāt structure and not for their roles in the 'craft' of hadīth criticism.

at least one scholar in all three periods.³¹ The following tables clarify the primary and secondary critics of the three periods of *ḥadīth* criticism gleaned from these ten sources.³²

Table 4.1: Primary Critics
Period 1 (100-200/718-815)

Name	Death Date	Location	Sources	
al-Awzā'ī, 'Abd al-Raḥmān b. 'Amr	157/774	Syria, Beirut	All but Muslim	
Shu'ba b. al-Ḥajjāj	160/776	Basra	All seven	
Sufyān b. Sa'īd al-Thawrī	161/778	Kufa	All but Muslim	
Mālik b. Anas	179/795	Medina	All seven	
'Abdullāh b. al-Mubārak	181/797	Khurasan	All but Muslim	
Sufyān b. 'Uyayna	198/813	Mecca	All but al-Ḥākim	
Wakī d. al-Jarrāḥ	197/813	Kufa	All but M and HA	
'Abd al-Raḥmān b. Mahdī	198/814	Basra	All but al-Ḥākim	
Yaḥyā b. Saʻīd al-Qaṭṭān	198/813	Basra	All seven ³³	
Period 2 (200-300/815-912)				
Yaḥyā b. Ma'īn	233/848	Baghdad	All but al-Mizzī	
'Alī b. 'Abdullāh al-Madīnī	234/849	Basra	All but al-Mizzī	
Ibn Ḥanbal, Aḥmad b. Muḥammad	241/855	Baghdad	All but al-Mizzī	

Table 4.1. (cont.)

Abū Khaythama Zuhayr b.

Ibn Abī Shayba, Abū Bakr

'Abdullah b. Muhammad

Harb

Name	Death Date	Location	Sources
al-Bukhārī, Muḥammad b. Ismā'īl	256/870	Bukhara	IH, IA, IJ, DH
Abū Zurʻa al-Rāzī, ʻUbayd Allāh b. ʻAbd al-Karīm	264/878	Rayy	All but KH and MI
Abū Ḥātim al-Rāzī, Muḥammad b. Idrīs	277/890	Rayy	IAH, IA, IJ, DH
Period	3 (300-400/91	2-1009)	
Ibn Abī Ḥātim, 'Abd al-Rahman	327/939	Rayy	All three
Ibn 'Adī, Abū Aḥmad 'Abdullāh	365/976	Jurjān	All three

Table 4.2: Secondary Critics

Name	Death Date	Location	Sources
al-Zuhrī, Muḥammad b. Muslim	124/742	Medina, Syria	IM, IH, IA
al-A'mash, Sulaymān b. Mihrān	148/765	Kufa	IM, IA
Ibn Jurayj, 'Abd al-Mālik b. 'Abd al-'Azīz	150/767	Mecca	IM, HA
Ḥammād b. Salama	167/784	Basra	IM, IH
al-Layth b. Sa'd	175/791	Egypt	IH, KH
Ḥammād b. Zayd	179/795	Basra	IAH, IH, KH
Hushaym b. Bashīr	183/799	Wāsit	IM, IA
al-Shāfiʻī, Muḥammad b. Idrīs	204/820	Egypt	IH, IA
Abū Mushir 'Abd al-A'lā b. Mushir	218/833	Damascus	IAH, IA
Period	2 (200-300/8)	15–912)	
Muḥammad b. 'Abdullāh b. Numayr	234/848	Kufa	IAH, IA

234/848

235/849

Nasā,

Baghdad

Kufa, Wāsit

IH, DH

IH, IA

⁵⁷ Seven sources include multiple scholars in the first period: the lists of Ibn al-Madīnī (IM), Muslim (M), al-Khaṭīb al-Baghdādī (KH), al-Ḥākim al-Naysābūrī (HA) and the ṭabaqāt presentations of Ibn Abī Ḥātim (IAH), Ibn Ḥibbān (IH), and Ibn 'Adī (IA). Al-Dhahabī's list in the Mīzān only includes one first-period name (Yaḥyā l-Qaṭṭān). The second period is covered by KH, Ibn al-Jawzī (IJ), al-Mizzī (MI), al-Dhahabī (DH), and the three ṭabaqāt presentations. The third period is covered only by IJ, MI, and DH.

³² Tables for the 'other' critics who are mentioned in only one of the ten sources can be found below in the Appendix A.

³³ Yahyā b. Sa'īd al-Qaṭṭān is also the first name mentioned in al-Dhahabī's list in Mīzān al-ǐtidāl.

Table 4.2. (cont.)

Muḥammad b. al-Ḥusayn al-Dāraqutnī, 'Alī b. 'Umar

Muhammad b. 'Abdullāh

al-Hākim, Abū 'Abdullāh

al-Naysābūrī

Name	Death Date	Location	Sources
Ibn Rāhawayh, Isḥāq b. Ibrāhīm	238/853	Nishapur	IH, IA
al-Fallās, Abū Ḥafṣ ʿAmr b. ʿAlī	249/863	Basra, Baghdad	IA, IJ
Ibrāhīm b. Ya'qūb al-Jūzajānī	259/873	Syria	IJ, DH
Muslim b. al-Ḥajjāj	261/874	Nishapur	ĬH, IJ, DH
al-Nasā'ī, Aḥmad b. Shu'ayb	303/915	Egypt	IA, DH
Period :	3 (300–400/9)	12-1009)	
al-'Uqaylī, Muḥammad b.	322/934	Ḥijāz	IJ, DH
Ibn Ḥibbān, Abū Ḥātim Muhammad	354/965	Khurasan	MI, DH
al-Azdī, Abū l-Fatḥ	374/984-5	Jazīra	IJ, DH

385/995

405/1014

Baghdad

Nishapur

II, DH

MI, DH

There are a few important findings in this sea of names that merit discussion prior to the re-articulation of these three periods into a seven-tabaqāt framework. The first observation is the extraordinary dominance of Iraqi scholars in general, and Baghdādī ones in particular, in the first two periods of hadīth criticism, a finding not entirely unexpected given my appellation of the fourth phase of hadīth compilation as the "The Triumph of Baghdad and Iran." A second point is that all five of Muslim's 'Imāms' are primary critics, and all but one of Ibn Abī Ḥātim's "master hadīth critics" are either primary or secondary critics. A final general observation is the fact that only eighteen of the ninety-two scholars are also included in al-Dhahabī's list of fifty-four Shuyūkh al-Islam that was discussed in the second chapter, a finding that reinforces my hypothesis that acumen with regard to hadīth criticism was only one of several of al-

Dhahabī's criteria for inclusion in his list of elite Sunnī scholars in Tadhkirat al-huffāz.

The second level of analysis of the critics identified by the ten sources is to convert the unwieldy tables on the previous pages into a crisp presentation of the most important *hadīth* critics. This task will be accomplished by dividing each of the three periods into multiple generations of scholars in order to clarify the historical development of this discipline. Finally, all geographical and necrological details shall be eschewed in order to provide an unobstructed view of the individual master critics in their historical context.

Table 4.3: The master Sunnī hadīth critics: A tabagāt approach

	Period 1 (100-200 AH)
<i>Țabaga 1</i> Secondary Critics:	al-Zuhrī, al-A'mash
Tabaqa 2 Primary Critics: Secondary Critics:	al-Awzā'ī, Shu'ba, Sufyān al-Thawrī, Mālik, Ibn 'Uyayna Ibn Jurayj, Ḥammād b. Salama, al-Layth b. Sa'd Ḥammād b. Zayd, Hushaym b. Bashīr
<i>Țabaqa 3</i> Primary Critics:	Ibn al-Mubārak, Wakī', Yaḥyā b. Sa'īd al-Qaṭṭān, Ibn
,	Mahdī al-Shāfi'ī, Abū Mushir 'Abd al-A'lā b. Mushir
	Period 2 (200-300 AH)
Tabaqa 4 Primary Critics: Ibn Ma'īn, 'Alī b. al-Madīnī, Ibn Ḥanbal Secondary Critics: Muḥammad b. 'Abdullāh b. Numayr, Abū Khaythi Ibn Abī Shayba, Ibn Rāhawayh, Abū Haſs al-Fallā	
<i>Țabaqa 5</i> Primary Critics: Secondary Critics:	al-Bukhārī, Abū Zurʻa al-Rāzī, Abū Ḥātim al-Rāzī Ibrāhīm al-Jūzajānī, Muslim b. al-Ḥajjāj, al-Nasāʾī
	Period 3 (300-400 AH)
Tabaqa 6 Primary Critics: Secondary Critics:	Ibn Abī Ḥātim, Ibn ʿAdī al-ʿUqaylī, Ibn Ḥibbān
<i>Țabaqa 7</i> Secondary Critics:	Abū l-Fatḥ al-Azdī, al-Dāraquṭnī, al-Ḥākim al-Naysābūrī

³⁴ Forty-three of the critics of the first two periods hail from Iraq, seventeen of whom lived in Baghdad.

³⁵ The one critic who is unique to Ibn Abī Ḥātim's tastes is Abū Ishāq al-Fazārī.

This clear presentation of the historical development of Sunnī hadīth criticism and identification of the most profound critics merits a few

more general observations. First, it is noteworthy that the first and

IV.4 The origins of Sunnī hadīth criticism: An examination of the first two generations of primary critics

IV.4.1

The goal of this section is connected intimately to the fundamental task of this book, namely the elucidation of the emergence of Sunnī Islam in the third/ninth century. I argued in the introduction of this project that several major hadīth scholars in general, and Ibn Hanbal, Ibn Ma'īn, and Ibn Sa'd in particular, played a major role in this endeavor. The fact that both Ibn Hanbal and Ibn Ma'ın are primary critics of the fourth generation is of course beneficial to my argument but it is necessary to understand the 'state of the field' of hadīth criticism that they inherited from their teachers, such as Wakī' b. al-Jarrāḥ, Yaḥyā l-Qaṭṭān, and Ibn Mahdī, in order to evaluate their own roles in its development. Since it appears that hadīth criticism began only with the generation prior to the teachers of Ibn Hanbal and Ibn Ma'īn, an analysis of the nine scholars whom I have just recognized as 'primary critics' of Period 1 seems to be a necessary step in order to sharpen our understanding of the origins of the discipline that I am arguing shaped the articulation of Sunnī Islam in the third/ninth century.

There are a few features common to all nine of these men that deserve serious attention prior to the evaluation of their statuses as master hadīth critics. The most salient feature of all of the first generation members of this group is an extremely high reputation for the transmission of hadīth from one, two, or three major scholars of the previous generation, collectively known as the tābiʿūn. Al-Awzāʿī is famous for his transformation of the knowledge of Yaḥyā b. Abī Kathīr (d. 132/749) into books, in addition to his limited transmission of hadīth from al-Zuhrī. Shuʿba had an outstanding reputation

The obvious problem that remains, however, is that of the first period. I have alluded previously to Eerik Dickinson's recent argument that the scholars whom I have identified as primary critics in the second generation were misleadingly depicted as critics by Ibn Abī Ḥātim in order to give later hadīth critics a greater veneer of authenticity. Put succinctly, Dickinson asks the question "were famous jurists like al-Awzā'ī and Mālik b. Anas really hadīth critics?" Certainly the evidence provided by Ibn Abī Ḥātim in the Taqdīma is thin, especially in contrast with the substantial evidence he offers in his discussions of Sufyān al-Thawrī and Shu'ba b. al-Ḥajjāj. The only way to answer this question is to examine the depictions of the nine 'primary critics' of the second and third tabaqāt in several early books of hadīth-transmitter criticism in order to elucidate why so many later generations of critics considered these scholars as the Imāms and founders of this discipline.³⁷

seventh generations consist solely of 'secondary critics', while the middle five all contain a more or less equal number of primary and secondary ones. Secondly, the fact that no generation has more than five primary critics is indicative of the highest degree of authority vested in a strikingly small and geographically diverse coterie of master hadīth scholars. Finally, there can be little skepticism concerning the role of any of the primary critics or most of the secondary critics in the second and third periods of Sunnī hadīth criticism given the textual evidence that has survived. This evidence includes the five published recensions of Ibn Maʿīnʾs Tārīkh, several volumes of Ibn Ḥanbalʾs 'Ilal, and al-Bukhārīʾs al-Tārīkh al-kabīr.³6 Indeed, it is not a coincidence that half of the ten sources consulted for this chapter come from the pens of scholars found in the second and third periods of this list.

The obvious problem that remains, however, is that of the first

 $^{^{36}}$ 1 mentioned in the first footnote of the first chapter that the authenticity of al- $T\bar{a}r\bar{t}kh$ al- $kab\bar{t}r$ was championed recently by Christopher Melchert; see his article "Bukhārī and Early Hadith Criticism."

³⁷ This chapter is not the place to access the critical roles, if any, of the ten sec-

ondary critics of the first period for the simple reason that the vast majority of these men are present in only two of the seven sources that covered the first period, whereas all but one of the primary critics was recognized by six of them. This gap indicates a high degree of consensus among the later Muslim scholars as to the identities of the most authoritative critics of the first two generations and so it is most urgent for us to assess whether this consensus is a result of a collective fraud, as Dickinson suggests, or due to the fact that these men may actually have been hadith critics.

³⁸ Taqdima, 184; Ibn 'Adī, al-Kāmil, I, 99-100.

for the transmission of material from Qatāda b. Di'āma, al-Ḥakam b. 'Utayba (d. 115/733),³⁹ and Abū Isḥāq al-Sabī'ī.⁴⁰ Sufyān al-Thawrī was widely acknowledged as an even stronger authority than Shu'ba on the *ḥadīth* of Abū Isḥāq and al-A'mash.⁴¹ Mālik's transmission of al-Zuhrī received the highest accolades, and he is depicted in the sources as the inheritor of both Nāfi' *mawlā* Ibn 'Umar's (d. 117/735) erudition and teaching circle (*ḥalqa*).⁴² Finally, Ibn 'Uyayna was the most prolific collector of *ḥadīth* from 'Amr b. Dīnār (d. 126/744), and was held in high regard for his transmission of material from al-Zuhrī by all save Ibn Ma'īn.⁴³

³⁹ Al-Dhahabī describes al-Ḥakam as the "Shaykh of Kufa" and records Ibn Ḥanbal as calling him the most reliable scholar of Ibrāhīm al-Nakha'ī's transmissions; *Tadhkira*, I, 88–9. Note that the other two men, Qatāda and Abū Isḥāq, are included in the first group of men "around whom the *isnād* revolves" in Ibn al-Madīnī's list that I included among the ten sources for this chapter.

¹⁰ Shu'ba's transmission from Qatāda is praised by his students Abū Dāwūd al-Tayālisī and Ibn Mahdī in the *Taqdima* (pp. 128 and 160, respectively) and by Ibn Ma'īn in 'Uthmān b. Sa'īd al-Dārimī's *Tārīkh* ([Beirut, 1980], 151), while that from al-Hakam is praised by Ibn Hanbal; *Taqdima*, 128, 161-2. Shu'ba is considered among Abū Isḥāq's companions in al-Dārimī's *Tārīkh* (p. 59) and although Ibn Ma'īn considers his transmission inferior to that of Sufyān al-Thawrī, both men are considered the most erudite of his students. This identical opinion of Ibn Ma'īn, which is also found in the *Taqdima*, is seconded by 'Alī b. al-Madīnī on the authority of Mu'ādh b. Mu'ādh, and further confirmed by Ibn Mahdī and Abū Zur'a al-Rāzī; *Taqdima*, 162-3. See also the next footnote for more references.

"'Alī b. al-Madīhī declares al-Thawrī to have the most 'ilm of these two scholars as well as of the entire madhhab of Ibn Mas'ūd and, in another report, heard Mu'ādh b. Mu'ādh identify Shu'ba and al-Thawrī as the two soundest (athbat) students of Abū Ishāq; Taqdima, 58 and 65. Abū Zur'a identifies Shu'ba, al-Thawrī's and Isrā'īl as the soundest companions of Abū Ishāq; Taqdima, 66. Sufyān al-Thawrī's superior knowledge of al-A'mash's transmissions is testified to by Ibn Ḥanbal, Abū Ḥātim, and Ibn Ma'īn (Taqdima, 64–5); for Ibn Ma'īn's opinion that al-Thawrī's transmission from al-A'mash is superior to that of Shu'ba, see also al-Dārimī, Tārīkh, 51; for Ibn Hanbal's identical opinion, see Taqdima, 64.

12 All three of the labaqāt presentations I studied in the previous section include the report that Shu'ba came to Medina the year after Nāfi's death and saw Mālik sitting in his place-leading the class; Taqdima, 26, Kītāb al-majrūhīn, I, 44 and al-Kāmil, I, 104. Mālik's transmission from Nāfi' is also praised by Ibn Mahdī and 'Alī b. al-Madīnī includes him among his three best students; Taqdima, 15–16. Ibn Ma'īn is reported to have said that Mālik was the most reliable (althbal) companion of al-Zuhrī and that his knowledge from Nāfi' was more reliable than that of 'Ubayd Allāh b. 'Umar and Ayyūb al-Sakhtiyānī (Taqdima, 16; also al-Dārimī, Tānīkh, 41 for his opinion that Mālik was preferable to Ma'mar, Yūnus, and 'Uqayl with respect to the teachings of al-Zuhrī). Mālik's precedence with respect to al-Zuhrī is also attested by 'Abdullāh b. Aḥmad b. Ḥanbal, Ibn Ḥanbal, al-Fallās, and Abū Hātim in the Taqdima, 15–17.

⁴³ Ibn 'Uyayna was seen in his youth with 'Amr b. Dīnār by Shu'ba and Hammād b. Zayd; Ibn Ma'īn considers him to have the largest amount of *hadīth* material

The salient feature of the third generation of critics in the first period is a deep attachment to these five major scholars as well as several of the secondary critics of this generation. Ibn al-Mubārak studied with Sufyān al-Thawrī and two anecdotes record his deep admiration for his teacher. The Kufan Wakī b. al-Jarrāḥ is considered to be one of the most reliable disciples of Sufyān al-Thawrī and numerous anecdotes testify to both Ibn Maʿīn and Ibn Ḥanbal's deep respect for him. Yaḥyā b. Saʿīd al-Qaṭṭān spent twenty years with Shuʿba and was a major student of Sufyān al-Thawrī. He receives the highest accolades from Ibn Ḥanbal and Abū Ḥātim al-Rāzī, and is praised by al-Bukhārī as the scholar with the best skills of distinguishing Sufyān al-Thawrī's sahīḥ hadīth from his tadlīs. Tinally, 'Abd al-Raḥmān b. Mahdī excelled in the transmission of knowledge from Mālik b. Anas and Ḥammād b. Zayd, and was considered a significant student of both Sufyān al-Thawrī and Shuʿba.

from him; Taqdima, 33-4, and 36; al-Kāmil, I, 107; see also al-Dārimī, Tārīkh, 55-6 for Ibn Ma'īn's opinion that he had more knowledge from 'Amr than either al-Thawrī or Ḥammād b. Zayd. Abū Ḥātim remarked that Ibn 'Uyayna had more knowledge from 'Amr than Shu'ba, but disagreed with Ibn al-Madīnī's claim that Ibn 'Uyayna was the most accurate (atqan) of al-Zuhrī's students; this distinction he reserved for Mālik; Taqdima, 52. Yaḥyā l-Qaṭṭān is reported to have preferred Ibn 'Uyayna to Ma'mar with respect to al-Zuhrī's transmissions, although Ibn Ma'īn felt that Ma'mar was superior because Ibn 'Uyayna was a mere youth (ghulayyim) when he studied with al-Zuhrī; Taqdima, 51 (Qaṭṭān) and al-Dārimī, Tārīkh, 41-2 (Ibn Ma'īn).

[&]quot;Al-Thawrī has the most erudition ('ilm') on earth" (Taqdima, 57); "I wrote from 1,100 shuyūkh, none of them was like al-Thawrī;" Ibn 'Adī, al-Kāmil, I, 95.

¹⁵ See Taqdima, 219 and Ibn 'Adī, al-Kāmil, İ, 117. Ibn Ma'īn said that Wakī' was better than Ibn Mahdī with respect to the material of al-Thawrī; al-Dārīmī, Tārīkh, 61 and Ibn 'Adī, al-Kāmil, I, 117. Ibn Ḥanbal is reported to have said that Wakī' had a bigger heart (or mind?) than Ibn Mahdī (akbar fī l-qalb) and that nobody in Kufa was like Wakī' and Ḥafṣ b. Ghiyāth (d. 194/810); Ibn 'Adī, al-Kāmil, I, 117 and Kītāb al-majrūḥīn, I, 57, respectively.

¹⁶ For the report that Yahyā spent twenty years with Shu'ba, see *Taqdima*, 249. 'Alī b. al-Madīnī told Abū Hātim that the most reliable (awthaq) companion of al-Thawrī was Yahyā l-Qaṭṭān; *Taqdima*, 247. Ibn Ma'īn states that al-Qaṭṭān is superior to Ibn Mahdī with regard to the knowledge of Sufyān al-Thawrī; al-Dārimī, *Tānīkh*. 61

⁴⁷ Ibn Ḥanbal states that Yaḥyā l-Qaṭṭān was more reliable (thabl) than Wakī', Ibn Mahdī, Yazīd b. Hārūn, Abu Nu'aym (al-Faḍl b. Dukayn) and that he had never seen anyone more reliable than him; Taqdima, 246. Abū Ḥātim said that if there is a discrepancy between the hadīth of Ibn al-Mubārak, Ibn 'Uyayna and Yaḥyā l-Qaṭṭān, one should follow Yaḥyā's version; Taqdima, 234. For al-Bukhārī's quote, see Ibn 'Adī, al-Kāmil, I, 111.

⁴⁸ Ibn Ḥanbal remarks that Ibn Mahdī was a more accurate transmitter from al-Thawrī than Wakī', and 'Alī b. al-Madīnī states that Ibn Mahdī and al-Qaṭṭān

His list of "four Imāms" is reproduced numerous times in all three *labaqāl* presentations studied in this chapter, and comprises al-Awzā'ī, Sufyān al-Thawrī, Mālik b. Anas, and Ḥammād b. Zayd.⁴⁹

The second major quality shared by most of these nine master scholars is a high degree of proficiency in a discipline other than mere *hadīth* compilation. Al-Awzā'ī, Sufyān al-Thawrī, and Mālik all became eponyms for schools of jurisprudence and were among the earliest compilers of legal texts. ⁵⁰ Ibn al-Mubārak, who is reported to have been the 'jurist of the Arabs' after Sufyān al-Thawrī, ⁵¹ excelled in traveling to study with an unprecedented number of scholars, and literally wrote the book on Sunnī ascetism (*zuhd*). Ibn 'Uyayna is reported by al-Shāfi'ī, Ibn Wahb (d. 179/795) ⁵² and Nu'aym b. Ḥammād (d. 228/843) to have had a remarkable degree of erudition with regard to Qur'ānic exegesis. ⁵³ As for Shu'ba, Ibn Mahdī, and Yaḥyā l-Qaṭṭān, their specialty seems to have been *hadīth*-transmitter criticism (*al-jarḥ wa l-ta'dīl*), and a couple of anecdotes in Ibn 'Adī's book indicate the innovative nature of Shu'ba's practice of including negative comments of transmitters in the course of his

classes (majlis).⁵⁴ The only special quality of Wakī' that I have come across is that he inherited the prestigious teaching post pillar in the main mosque of Kufa which had been the place of unbroken instruction from the time of 'Abdullāh b. Mas'ūd to his own teacher Sufyān al-Thawrī.⁵⁵

The third major feature shared by these nine men is the frequent appellation of the sobriquet 'Imām.' The lists of Muslim and al-Hākim al-Naysābūrī, and the *tabaqāt* of Ibn Abī Hātim, Ibn Hibbān, and Ibn 'Adī all refer to these men as Imāms, and I just mentioned the oft-cited report of Ibn Mahdī's 'four Imāms.' What exactly does this term mean? We have already seen that Muslim sheds a little light on this topic by indicating that his five exemplary Imāms are men "who criticize the transmission of *hadīth* from unsatisfactory people." The most explicit definition of this term occurs twice in Ibn 'Adī's *al-Kāmil fī du'afā' al-rijāl* and is attributed to the primary critic Ibn Mahdī:

An Imām is one who does *not* transmit all that he has heard, nor transmits from all whom he has heard, nor transmits all the questions he has been asked, nor transmits to all who ask him.⁵⁶

This rather vague definition of Imām describes a scholar who is both selective in his transmission of hadīth and his choice of students, and is considered an authority to whom questions are addressed by his contemporaries. It appears as though a closer examination of the

were the most reliable (awthaq) students of al-Thawrī; Taqdima, 253. Abū Ḥātim declares Ibn Mahdī to be the most reliable (thabt) companion of Ḥammād b. Zayd and there is a rather surprising report that Ibn 'Uyayna took reports on the authority of his contemporary Mālik b. Anas from his own young pupil Ibn Mahdī; Taqdima, 255 and 257). Al-Zurqānī mentions that a group of scholars claim that Ibn Mahdī had a recension of Mālik's Muwaṭṭa' and that Ibn Ḥanbal incorporated much of this version of the Muwaṭṭa' in his Musnad; Zurqānī, Sharḥ al-Zurqānī 'alā Muwaṭṭa' al-Imām Mālik, I, 9 and 11. Note that Ibn Mahdī studied with Shu'ba for ten years, but that something happened to his notebooks and he lost a third of his materials; Ibn 'Adī, al-Kāmil, I, 120.

⁴⁹ Taqdima, 11, 118, 177, 203, 245 (Ibn al-Mubārak is substituted for al-Awzā'ī in this version); Kītāb al-majrūhīn, I, 44; Ibn 'Adī, al-Kāmil, I, 80, 100. See also al-Tirmidhī, al-Ṭāmi' al-sahīh, V, 750.

⁵⁰ Al-Awzā'ī is reported by 'Abd al-Razzāq to have been among the first to compile a book (tamīf), namely the notebooks of Yahyā b. Abī Kathīr (Taqdima, 185; Ibn 'Adī, al-Kāmīf, I, 100); Sufyān al-Thawrī's Jāmī' is the first work listed in Ibn Nadīm's Fihrist under the chapter of the madhhab of aṣḥāb al-ḥadīth; and Mālik's Muwaṭṭa' remains one of the most venerated Sunnī books to this day. It is interesting to note that Yaḥyā l-Qaṭṭān is said to have followed the madhhab of al-Thawrī/Ibn Mas'ūd, while his Basran contemporary Ibn Mahdī followed the madhhab of Mālik/Ibn 'Umar; Taqdima, 234 and 252.

⁵¹ Ibn 'Adī, al-Kāmil, I, 115. The quote comes from al-Mu'tamir b. Sulaymān al-Taymī (d. 187/803).

⁵² Al-Dhahabī calls 'Abdullāh b. Wahb b. Muslim al-Miṣrī an Imām and jurist; *Tadhkira*, 1, 222-3.

⁵³ Tagdima, 32.

⁵⁴ Hushaym b. Bashīr and Yazīd b. Hārūn are reported to have left Shu'ba's majlis because he "introduced slander into it;" Ibn 'Adī, al-Kāmil, I, 82.

⁵⁵ Ibn 'Adī, al-Kāmil, I, 137. The list of notables who sat at this pillar is as follows: Ibn Mas'ūd (d. 32/652-3), 'Alqama b. Qays (d. 62/681), Ibrāhīm al-Nakha'ī (d. 95/714), Manṣūr b. al-Mu'tamir (d. 132/750), Sufyān al-Thawrī, Wakī'. This prestigious position was then passed on to Wakī's pupil and 'secondary critic' Ibn Abī Shayba; Siyar, XI, 124. Note that Wakī' also composed a muṣannaf, which was available in Baghdad in Ibn Sa'd's day; see below, VIII.6, note 181.

wa haddatha bi-kulli mā yus'alu 'anhu wa haddatha kulla man yas'aluhu; Ibn 'Adī, al-Kāmil, I, 100, 119. The second variant adds the following sentence: "He writes hadīth of the Prophet ﷺ that he finds from reliable (thiqa) transmitters, then the reports of the Companions from reliable transmitters, then that of the tābi'ūn, and then he stops;" ibid, 119. A variant of this statement is found in a much earlier source, namely the introduction to Muslim's Ṣaḥīḥ: lā yakūnu l-rajulu imāman yuqtadā bihi ḥattā yunsika 'an ba'ḍi mā sami'a; Ṣaḥīḥ Muslim bi-sharh al-Nawawī, I, 69. Note also the opinion attributed by Ibn Wahb to Mālik found on the same page of Muslim's introduction: a'lam annahu laysa yaslimu rajulun ḥaddatha bi-kulli mā sami'a wa lā yakūnu imāman abadan wa huwa yuhaddithu bi-kulli mā sami'a.

nine first period primary critics is a necessary undertaking if we are to assess accurately whether these men are truly critics rather than mere transmitters of hadīth.

IV.4.2 al-Awzā'ī

The evidence for al-Awzā'ī's role in hadīth criticism is particularly thin.⁵⁷ In fact, he does not even appear to have been a particularly strong transmitter of hadīth, as al-Fallās remarks that he was reliable (thabt) only with what he heard directly from a teacher and Abū Hatim calls him a "jurist who follows that which he has heard."58 I have already mentioned his key role in compiling multi-topic books and Ibn Hanbal calls him an Imam of the companions of Yahya b. Abī Kathīr.⁵⁹ Al-Awzā^cī's purported favorite students of al-Zuhrī baffled Ibn Abī Hātim, who suggests that the Syrian scholar did not have access to the more famous works of Ma'mar, Yūnus, and 'Uqayl.60 Ibn 'Adī reports that al-Awzā'ī taught that al-Zuhrī would use the expression suriga whenever he encountered a hadīth with which he was unfamiliar. 61 Al-Bukhārī refers to his opinions only once in his Kītāb al-du'afā' al-saghīr, and there do not appear to be any references to his critical opinions in Ibn Sa'd's al-Tabagāt al-kabīr.62 Finally, Ibn Mahdī's appellation of al-Awzā'ī as "Imām of the Sunna" suggests that he considered his teacher to be more a model of Islamic practice than a master of hadīth. 63

IV.4.3 Shu'ba b. al-Hajjāj

In stark contrast to al-Awzā'ī, the evidence in support of Shu'ba's role in both hadīth criticism and hadīth-transmitter criticism is overwhelming. His entry is by far the largest in all three of the tabaqāt presentations, and I shall analyze his 139 critical opinions arranged alphabetically by Ibn Abī Ḥātim in the Taqdima below. Ibn Sa'd includes several dozen reports on the authority of Shu'ba, several of which indicate a concern with whether a tabi'i really heard hadith from specific sahāba, and a few in which he declares a transmitter weak.⁶⁴ Al-Bukhārī also includes a very modest number of opinions ascribed to Shu'ba in al-Du'afā' al-saghīr.65 Ibn 'Adī reports that al-A'mash would ask Shu'ba about the hadith of Qatada during his visits to Kufa and that he criticized Shu'ba for teaching hadīth to the masses by saying "Shame on you! Does one put pearls around the necks of swine?"66 There are also several references to Shu'ba warning his students to be careful of Sufyān al-Thawrī's examples of tadlīs, as well as to his small party (shī'a) of favorite hadīth scholars.67 Ḥammād b. Zayd's quote that "I rejected any of my hadīth that differed with those of Shu'ba (in wording)" is further testament to Shu'ba's selectivity, and there are numerous indications that Shu'ba was one of the few scholars who insisted upon hearing the same hadith numerous times prior to teaching it to his students. 68 Finally several sources

⁵⁷ Anke Bouzenita has found references in the *Tārīkh*s of Abū Zur'a al-Dimashqī and Ibn 'Asākir to al-Awzā'ī's employment of the technical terms thiqa and da'īf in her recent study 'Abdarrahmān al-Auzā'ī—ein Rechtsgelehrter des 2. Jahrhunderts d. H. und sein Beitrag zu den Siyar, 54–55. It is striking that al-Awzā'ī's remarks of this type do not appear in the early critical books outside of Syria, although it is possible that a few critical comments of his are buried somewhere in Ibn Abī Ḥātim's Kītāb aljarh wa l-ta'dīl.

⁵⁸ Taqdima, 185 (al-Fallās); faqīh muttabi li-mā sami a; 186 (Abū Ḥātim).

⁵⁹ Ibn 'Adī, *al-Kāmil*, I, 99–100.

⁶⁰ These students include Qurra b. 'Abd al-Raḥmān, Muḥammad b. Walīd al-Zubaydī, and the books of Walīd b. Mazyad; *Taqdima*, 205.

⁶¹ Íbn 'Adī, al-Kāmil, I, 70.

⁶² Al-Bukhārī, *Kītāb al-ḍu'afā' al-ṣaghīr*, ed. Būrān al-Ḍanāwī (Beirut: 'Ālam al-Kutub, 1984), 74.

⁶³ Taqdima, 203. Note that Ibn Mahdī is reported as having identified three types of Imāms: 1) Imām of sunna and hadīth; 2) Imām of sunna but not hadīth; 3) Imām of hadīth, but not sunna; Taqdima, 118. Al-Awzā'ī appears to belong to the second category.

⁶⁴ Examples of the former category include the observations that al-Ḥasan al-Baṣrī did not hear from Abū Hurayra (al-Ṭabaqāt al-kubrā, VII, 80), while Ibn Sīrīn heard directly from Ibn 'Umar and Abū Hurayra (ibid., VII, 100); that Ribī' b. Ḥirāsh met 'Alī but did not use the technical term sami'a in his transmissions (ibid., VI, 421), and that Abū 'Abd al-Raḥmān al-Sulamī did not hear from 'Uthmān but did hear from 'Alī (ibid., VI, 448). Examples in which Shu'ba explicitly declares a transmitter weak include the infamous case of Abū l-Zubayr al-Makkī, Yazīd b. Sufyān, and Abū Bishr; ibid., V, 326, VII, 123 and 130. Concerning 'Aṭā' b. al-Sā'ib, Shu'ba remarks that he is reliable (thiqa) when he transmits on the authority of one scholar, but not when he mentions multiple ones [in the same isnād]; ibid, VI, p. 525.

⁶⁵ Al-Du'afā' al-ṣaghīr, 71, 97, 160, 252, 253.

⁶⁶ waylaka, yā Shu'ba! 'atu'allaqu l-lu'lu'a fi a'nāqi l-khanāzīr? Ibn 'Adī, al-Kāmil, I, 26-7.

⁶⁷ For the former, see Ibn 'Adī, al-Kāmil, I, 82; for his four favorite scholars, see *ibid.*, I, 84. These men are al-Ḥakam b. 'Utayba, Salama b. Kuhayl, Ḥabīb b. Abī Thābit, and Manṣūr b. al-Mu'tamir.

⁶⁸ mā khālafanī Shu'ba fi ḥadīthin illā taraktuhu; Ibn 'Adī, al-Kāmil, I, 86. Abū l-Walīd al-Ṭayālisī reports Ḥammād b. Zayd as saying "if Shu'ba differs with me, I follow his [version] because I only hear [a ḥadīth] once, whereas Shu'ba returns to it and checks it;" idhā khālafanī Shu'ba fi l-ḥadīth tabi'tuhu . . . inna Shu'ba kāna yasma'u wa yu'īdu

record Shu'ba's technique for ascertaining whether Qatāda's hadīth were worth writing down or not on the basis of whether Qatāda said haddathanā or sami'tu or whether he used a different verb. 69

CHAPTER FOUR

Ibn Abī Ḥātim's collation and alphabetical organization of reports that record Shu'ba's opinions concerning ninety men warrants a closer examination because it is unique to any of the ten sources examined in this chapter and it is by far the strongest testimony to Shu'ba's pivotal role in the history of hadīth criticism. To Each of the 139 reports is complete with an isnād that consists of only three names in the overwhelming majority of the cases. Ibn Abī Ḥātim collated this material from twenty-eight sources, although the majority of it comes from only three men: his father, Muḥammad b. Yaḥyā, Thand Ṣāliḥ b. Aḥmad b. Ḥanbal. Fourteen of his informants transmitted only one report to him, and eight transmitted fewer than five reports. The following table provides an overview to these twenty-eight sources:

Table 4.4: Ibn Abī Ḥātim's sources for Shu'ba's critical opinions

Number 	Name	Number of reports	Special features
1	Abū Ḥātim al-Rāzī	47	
2	Ṣāliḥ b. Aḥmad b. Ḥanbal	20	All from 'Alī b. al-Madīnī
3	Muḥammad b. Yaḥyā	19	
4	'Alī b. al-Ḥasan al-Ḥasnajānī	10	Half from Ibn Ḥanbal
5	Ibn Abī Khaythama	5	Three from Ibn Ma'īn
6	Muḥammad b. Ibrāhīm	5	All from 'Amr b 'Alī al-Fallās
7	Bishr b. Muslim al-Ḥimṣī	4	All from Baqiyya b. al-Walīd
8	Aḥmad b. Salama al-Naysābūrī	3	
9	Muḥammad b. Sa'īd al-Mugrī	3	
10	Abū Sa'īd al-Ashajj	2	Both from Ibn Idrīs
11	Ismā'īl b. Abī l-Ḥārith	2	Both from Ibn Hanbal
12	Muḥammad b. Muḥammad b. Rajā'	2	Both from Ibn Rāhawayh
13	Muhammad b. al-Ḥasan/ al-Ḥusayn b. Ishkāb	2	Both from Qurā
14	Yūnus b. Ḥabīb	2	Both from Abū Dāwūd al-Ṭayāli (no intermediary
15	'Abbās al-Dūrī	1	from Ibn Ma'īn
16	'Abdullāh b. Aḥmad b. Ḥanbal	1	
17	Abū ʿAlī b. Daysam al-ʿAskarī	1	
18	Abū Zur'a al-Dimashqī	1	
19	Aḥmad b. Manṣūr al-Ramādī	1	
20	Aḥmad b. Sinān	1	
21	Abū Zur'a al-Rāzī	1	
22	Hudba b. Khālid	1	
23	Ḥusayn b. Ḥasan al-Rāzī	1	
24	Ibrāhīm b. Yaʻqūb al-Jūzajānī	1	
25	Muḥammad b. ʿAmmār al-Rāzī	1	

wa yubdī, wa kuntu anā asma'u marratan wāḥida; ibid., I, 91. See also Taqdima, 161 and Kūāb al-majrūḥīn, I, 30 for similar attestations to Shu'ba's above-average strictness with respect to samā'.

in Ibn Sa'd is the earliest source I have come across to record this statement: Shu'ba said: "I know what Qatāda heard [directly from his teachers] and what he did not: If he said haddathanā Anas, Ḥasan, Sa'īd, or Muṭarrif, [he heard from them], but if he had not heard from them, he would say qāla Sa'īd, qāla Abū Qilāba;" al-Ṭabaqāt al-kubrā, VII, 119. Ibn Abī Ḥātim includes a report from one of his most common chains of authority in the Taqdima, namely Ṣāliḥ b. Aḥmad b. Ḥanbal → 'Alī b. al-Madīnī → Ibn Mahdī, that Shu'ba wrote down hadīth when Qatāda said haddathanā or sami'tu, but did not do so when he said haddatha fulān; Taqdima, 160. For another slight variation in which the key word that divulges the lack of direct transmission is huddithtu (also on the authority of Ibn Mahdī), see Ibn 'Adī, al-Kāmil, I, 81.

These opinions are found in *Tagdima*, 132-57.

⁷¹ Rifat Fawzī identifies two teachers of Ibn Abī Ḥātim named Muḥammad b. Yaḥyā in his study Ibn Abī Ḥātim al-Rāzī wa atharuh fī 'ulūm al-ḥadīth (Cairo: Maktabat al-Khānjī, 1994), 367. The more likely of these two men is Muḥammad b. Yaḥyā b. 'Umar al-Wāṣiṭī who settled in Baghdad: Ibn Abī Ḥātim is quoted as saying "I wrote from him with my father" and he evaluates him as ṣāliḥ, ṣadūq fī l-ḥadīth. The other scholar is Muḥammad b. Yaḥyā b. Muḥammad al-Ḥarrānī who "wrote to us a little ḥadīth" (kataba ilaynā bi-shay'in min al-ḥadīth). It is also possible that this Muḥammad b. Yaḥyā is none other than the famous Shaykh al-Islām of Nishapur al-Dhuhlī, although Ibn Abī Ḥātim is not normally identified as one of his pupils.

Table 4.4. (cont.)

Number	Name	Number of reports	Special features
26	Muḥammad b. Muslim al-Rāzī	1	
27	Muslim b. al-Ḥajjāj	1	
28	'Umar b. Shabba	1	

It appears from this list that Ibn Abī Ḥātim followed in his father's footsteps by continuing the project of collecting critical reports attributed to Shu'ba and that he more than doubled the number of reports that he inherited. Abū Ḥātim's list was based upon the material of thirty-three informants, only eight of whom provided him with more than a single report. The forty-seven reports that Abū Ḥātim collected contained Shu'ba's critical evaluations for thirty-nine men, only four of whom receive multiple opinions. These findings indicate that Abū Ḥātim struggled much harder than his son in his effort to collect Shu'ba's critical opinions and, paradoxically, came up with far less material if his son included all of the reports that he did in fact collect.

In contrast to Abū Ḥātim's painstaking collection of Shu'ba's critical opinions through oral communication, Ibn Abī Ḥātim clearly derived a significant amount of material from Ṣāliḥ b. Aḥmad's books of his teacher 'Alī b. al-Madīnī. This material is particularly valuable to Ibn Abī Ḥātim not only due to the prestige of Ibn al-Madīnī as a ḥadīth critic, but because a large amount of his material is derived from the two Basran primary critics Yaḥyā b. Sa'īd al-Qaṭṭān and 'Abd al-Raḥmān b. Mahdī.7+

The third and final major informant from whom Ibn Abī Ḥātim benefited in the course of his quest to collect Shu'ba's critical opin-

ions is Muḥammad b. Yaḥyā. This scholar supplied Ibn Abī Ḥātim with nineteen reports from only seven sources, the most prominent of which is Maḥmūd b. Ghaylān (d. 239/854).⁷⁵ This collection contains one opinion of Shuʿba for seventeen scholars each and two for Qays b. Rabīʿ.

The purpose of this miniature exercise in source-criticism is to support the assertion that Ibn Abī Hātim did not merely forge the critical opinions of Shu'ba preserved in the Tagdima in order to invent a hadīth critic named Shu'ba, as suggested by Dickinson. It seems safe to assume that these reports were in circulation in the early third/ninth century, half a century after the death of Shu'ba. There does not appear to have been an easily accessible book nor collection of Shu'ba's critical opinions, although Ibn Abī Hātim was greatly aided by the work of his father, his teacher Muhammad b. Yahyā, and 'Alī b. al-Madīnī. It is also clear from the isnād analysis that Ibn Abī Ḥātim was keen to acquire five reports that were transmitted by the secondary critic al-Fallas from Muhammad b. Ibrahim, as well as two reports that were transmitted by Ibn Rāhawayh from Muhammad b. Muhammad b. Rajā'. Finally, the list of scholars from whom Ibn Abī Hātim received only one report includes several luminaries, such as 'Abbās al-Dūrī, Abū Zur'a al-Rāzī, Ibrāhīm al-Jūzajānī, and Muslim b. al-Ḥajjāj; it would have been very tempting for the unscrupulous scholar to forge additional reports of Shu'ba's opinions from any of these four men. Indeed, the fact that both Abū Hātim al-Rāzī and his son appear to have encountered such difficulty to obtain a mere 139 critical reports on the authority of Shu'ba testifies in favor of the proposition that this father-son team did not fabricate these reports. The paucity of critical opinions of Shu'ba that were accessible to as thorough a scholar as Ibn Abī Hātim in the late third/ninth century further suggests two possible interpretations: 1) either Shu'ba never really articulated very many critical opinions, or 2) his opinions became marginal in the wake of the extensive efforts of his successors who relied more upon their intimate

⁷² These eight men are Aḥmad al-Dawraqī (4 reports), Ibn Ghaylān (2), Mujāhid b. Mūsā (2), Muqātil b. Muḥammad (3), Muslim b. Ibrāhīm (3), Abū l-Walīd al-Ṭayālisī (2), Sulaymān b. Ḥarb (2), and Suḥaym b. al-Qāsim al-Ḥarrānī (2).

⁷³ These four men are Abū Isḥāq al-Hamdānī (3 reports), Ayyūb b. Abī Tamīma al-Sakhtiyānī (2), Ibn Ishāq (4), and Qays b. Rabī (2).

⁷⁴ Thirteen of the twenty reports in Ṣāliḥ's transmission concerning Shu'ba trace back to Yaḥyā l-Qaṭṭān and four to Ibn Mahdī. We shall see below that this isnād is very prominent in the sections in the *Taqdima* devoted to Sufyān al-Thawrī, and that Ibn al-Madīnī heard over thirty critical reports directly from Ibn 'Uyayna.

⁷⁵ Eight of the reports are on the authority of Maḥmūd b. Ghaylān, a prominent scholar from Marw who was imprisoned during the course of the miḥna. He studied with Ibn 'Uyayna, Wakī' b. al-Jarrāḥ, and his transmissions are found in all six of the canonical Sunnī hadīth books except the Sunan of Abū Dāwūd; al-Dhahabī, Tadhkira, II, 47.

knowledge of the material than upon the opinions of their predecessors in the course of their evaluations.⁷⁶

When we examine the short opinions of Shu'ba that have been preserved we notice both an absence of contradictory reports with regard to an individual scholar and a consistency within his language in general. Both 'Alī b. al-Ja'd and Ibn Ma'īn report that Shu'ba said that Hishām al-Dastawā'ī had greater erudition concerning the material of Qatada than himself,77 three of Shu'ba's students give anecdotes indicating his infamous dislike of Abū l-Zubayr al-Makkī,78 and Abu l-Walīd al-Tayālisī reports Shu'ba's respect for Ayyūb al-Sakhtiyānī by means of two different expressions.79 Shu'ba took at least three opinions that were controversial in his day, namely his rejection of 'Abd al-Malik b. Abī Sulaymān's hadīth and his support for the Shī'ī Jābir al-Ju'fī and Ibn Ishāq, who was labeled by Mālik b. Anas as "an antichrist among the antichrists."80 No less than twelve of the reports assembled by Ibn Abī Hātim consist of little more than Shu'ba's recommendation to a student to study with a famous teacher, often with the mere Arabic phrase 'alayka bi-, or to avoid his hadīth.81 Finally, there are several examples of what Dickinson

has identified as 'comparative criticism', such as Shu'ba's opinion that 'Āṣim b. Sulaymān is favorable to Qatāda, Ḥammād b. Abī Sulaymān has more hifz than al-Ḥakam, and that Yaḥyā b. Abī Kathīr was preferable to al-Zuhrī.⁸²

The most striking finding with regard to this analysis of the texts of Shu'ba's transmission is the correlation between the first transmitter in the isnād (Shu'ba's student) and the style of the language of his comments. There are numerous colorful anecdotes in the transmissions of Shu'ba's students who never achieved much of a reputation for hadīth criticism, whereas those who were more prominent scholars or critics include some technical language. Examples of the former category include the use of the non-technical terms sayyid and "best of people" (khivār al-nās), the remark "leave me, I do not want to vomit" with regard to Abū Bakr al-Hudhalī, the observation that the precision (itgān) of 'Abd al-Wārith b. Sa'īd was "clear from his backside" (qafāhu), and two particularly harsh anecdotes with regard to Aban b. Abī 'Ayyash.83 The technical term sadūq (sincere) is found in both of the reports from Ibn 'Ulayya,84 and the term thiga (reliable) is found in a mere five reports with reference to eight men, half of whom include the men whom I identified as Shu'ba's favorite scholars earlier in this section of this chapter.85 The students who employ the term thiga in their transmission from Shu'ba include Ibn Idrīs, Jarīr (b. 'Abd al-Hamīd), Sulaymān b. Harb, and Yahyā b. Sa'īd al-Oattān. This latter scholar is also the only one who uses the expression yuda"ifu (he declared weak) with regard to Shu'ba, and it is shocking that none of the reports include an evaluation in which Shub'a explicitly employs the term da'īf or one of its derivatives.86 The most severe technical term with a negative valence, taraka

To A striking feature of the books of Ibn Sa'd, Ibn Ma'īn, and Ibn Ḥanbal that I analyze in the seventh chapter below is the relatively infrequent recourse to the opinions of previous generations of hadīth critics and, instead, a major reliance upon individual research on the part of the master critics. In fact, the role of the master critic starting in the generation of these three scholars appears to be analogous to that of a mujtahid in jurisprudence, namely one in which the opinions of previous scholars tend to be of rather limited importance.

⁷⁷ Tagdima, 155.

⁷⁸ Suwayd b. 'Abd al-'Azīz reports that Shu'ba criticized him because he did not pray well, Hushaym reports that Shu'ba shredded his book of *hadīth* from Abū l-Zubayr, and Abū Dāwūd al-Ṭayālisī reports that Shu'ba said "nobody was more favorable to me prior to meeting him [than after having done so] than Abū l-Zubayr in Mecca;" *Taqdima*, 151.

⁷⁹ The expression in the first report is sayyid al-fuqahā' while the second one is "there is nobody like Avyūb, Yūnus, and Ibn 'Awn;" Taqdima, 133.

⁸⁰ Taqdima, 20 (Mālik's abusive insult of Ibn Isḥāq); 136 (two reports in defense of Jābir); 152 (five positive reports from four sources about Ibn Isḥāq). Shu'ba purportedly "fled from" 'Abd al-Malik's hadīth because they were "too perfect" (min husnihā farrartu); ibid., 146.

⁸¹ Examples of scholars with whom Shu'ba advised students to study include 'Abd al-Raḥmān b. 'Abdullāh, Qays b. al-Rabī', Haytham al-Ṣirafī, Buḥayr b. Sa'd, Muḥammad b. Ziyād, Ismā'īl b. Muslim al-'Abdī, Jarīr b. Ḥāzim, al-Ḥajjāj b. Arṭāt, Ibn Ishāq, and Warqā' b. 'Umar; *Taqdima*, 133–136, 140, and 150–6. Examples of those whom he told his pupils to avoid include Ḥasan b. 'Umāra and Ibrāhīm b. 'Uthmān; *ibid.*, 137 and 132.

⁸² Taqdima, 145, 137, and 156-7, respectively. Dickinson identifies three styles of criticism, namely, absolute, comparative, and conditional in his study of the Taqdima; Dickinson, The Development of Early Sunnite Hadīth Criticism, 93.

⁸³ These anecdotes are "Had I not been shy, I would not have prayed at his funeral" and "I would rather commit seventy major sins than transmit *hadīth* from Abān;" *Taqdima*, 134. For Abū Bakr al-Hudhalī, see *ibid.*, 143 (Sulmā b. 'Abdullāh) and for 'Abd al-Wārith, see *ibid.*, 146.

⁸⁴ Taqdima, 136 (Mahdī b. Maymūn) and 152 (Ibn Ishāq).

R5 The eight men are Jabala b. Suḥaym, Ḥabīb b. Abī Thābit, al-Ḥakam b. 'Utayba, Salama b. Kuhayl, Mahdī b. Maymūn, Manṣūr b. al-Mu'tamir, and Yazīd b. Khumayr; Taqdima, 136-9, 143, 153, 156.

⁸⁶ This observation is also consistent with my findings in al-Tabaqāt al-kabīr and al-Du'afā' al-ṣaghīr, namely that the exact language that Shu'ba used to declare a

(to reject, abandon), occurs with regard to only five scholars and is found only once in the first person.⁸⁷ It is probably not a coincidence that all but one of these reports are transmitted by three special pupils of Shu'ba, namely Mu'ādh b. Mu'ādh, Jarīr, and Yaḥyā l-Qaṭṭān.

The evidence in support of the identification of Shu'ba b. al-Hajjāj as a hadith critic is quite strong. The sources unanimously depict him as a master critic of hadith and a modest body of his hadith-transmitter opinions has survived. The bulk of these opinions is preserved in Ibn Abī Hātim's Tagdima, and my analysis of the isnāds of the 139 reports failed to produce any evidence of overt forgery on the part of the compiler. The argument for the authenticity of these opinions was augmented by my analysis of the texts themselves due to the observations that they were both consistent in the cases of multiple transmissions for a single scholar, and that only those reports passed on by students of Shuba who were themselves critics contained the technical terms that gained widespread currency by the early third/ninth century. While it would be desirable to know the actual language employed by Shu'ba in his negative criticisms of hadīth scholars, it is apparent from the surviving reports that his more critically minded students understood what their teacher meant and, perhaps out of respect, chose to conceal it with the unambiguous expression yuda"ifu.

IV.4.4 Sufyān al-Thawrī

There do not appear to have been many religious scholars in the early phases of Islam who received a higher degree of honor from their contemporaries and students than the Kufan Sufyān b. Saʿīd

transmitter weak "fias been concealed by the expression of yuḍa"ifu. Note also that Wakī' b. al-Jarrāḥ is recorded as saying that Shu'ba "did not say nice words about" 'Umāra b. Juwayn; Taqdima, 149. What these words were, we can only imagine.

al-Thawrī. I have mentioned already that his knowledge of the reports of Abū Isḥāq al-Sabī'ī and al-A'mash was considered superior to that of Shu'ba, as well as two anecdotes that record Ibn al-Mubārak's praise of him. Yaḥyā l-Qaṭṭān was particularly devoted to him and is reported to have said that al-Thawrī was superior to Mālik in everything and that nobody had more material memorized (hifz) than him. Bho Mahdī boasted that al-Thawrī's unique opinion was more reliable than the consensus of four of his prominent contemporaries, a report that appears in a hyperbolic form in Ibn Abī Ḥātim's Taqdima. Leven the strict critic Abū Ḥātim al-Rāzī was impressed with al-Thawrī's erudition:

Sufyān is a jurist, $h\bar{a}fiz$, and ascetic. He is the Imām of Iraq, most perfect (alqan) of the companions of Abū Ishāq, and has more hifz than Shu'ba; if these two differ, al-Thawrī [is correct]. 90

While there can be little doubt that Sufyān al-Thawrī was a remarkable hadīth scholar, his status as a hadīth critic requires a careful examination of the sources. There are not any references to him in al-Bukhārī's al-Du'afā' al-saghīr, and there are only three opinions of his found in Ibn Sa'd's al-Tabaqāt al-kabīr, none of which involve the criticism of an individual transmitter. There is a report from 'Abd al-Razzāq that al-Thawrī would reply to inquiries about names in the isnād by saying "he spoke well" (kāna ḥasan al-khiṭāb) and another one from his Kufan student Abū Nu'aym that he would scowl (qaṭṭab) whenever he related hadīth from a weak transmitter. These reports

⁸⁷ Kītāb al-majrūḥīn, I, 51; the four scholars are Zā'ida b. Qudāma, Abū l-Aḥwaş, Isrā'īl, and Sharīk. The exaggerated report is transmitted by al-Fallās and put in the mouth of Yaḥyā l-Qaṭṭān: "Even if there were 4000 like these [four scholars], al-Thawrī would be more reliable (athbat) than them!" Taqdima, 78-9.

⁹⁰ Sufyān faqīhun, hāfizun, zāhidun imāmu ahli l-sirāq, wa atqanu aṣḥābi Abī Isḥāq, wa huwa aḥfazu min Shu'ba, wa idhā ikhtalafa l-Thawrī wa Shu'ba, fa-l-Thawrī; Taqdima, 66.
⁹¹ Al-Ṭabaqāt al-kubrā, VI, 523 (ḥadīth of 'Abd al-Alā b. 'Amr from Ibn al-Ḥanafiyya

from a book, not samā'); VI, 528 (hadīth of 'Abd al-A'lā b. 'Amr from Ibn al-Ḥanafiyya from a book, not samā'); VI, 528 (names of the four huffāz in his opinion); VI, 528 (how to distinguish Jābir al-Ju'st's tadlīs from his sound hadīth). Parallel versions of all three of these reports are also found in the Taqdima, 71, 72 (only three of the four names), and 73, respectively.

92 Ibn 'Adī, al-Kāmil, I, 93 and 99.

⁸⁷ The five men whose hadīth are rejected by Shu'ba are Ḥasan b. 'Umāra, Ḥukaym b. Jubayr, Shahr b. Ḥawshab, 'Abd al-Malik b. Abī Sulaymān, and al-Minhāl b. 'Amr; Taqdima, 138, 139, 144, 146, 153. The first of these reports is the only example in which Shu'ba is purported to have said "I rejected him;" all of the others have the word taraka in the mouth of Shu'ba's students, with the exception of the two reports regarding Ḥukaym b. Jubayr, in which the question "Why did Shu'ba reject Ḥukaym?" is actually in the mouth of Ibn al-Madīnī and the question is directed to Yaḥyā l-Qaṭṭān.

Sufyān fawqa Mālik fī kulli shay'; Taqdima, 57, Kītāb al-majrūhīn, I, 51. For al-Thawrī's incomparable hifz, see Taqdima, 62–3, Kītāb al-majrūhīn, I, 49, and Ibn 'Adī, al-Kāmil, I, 97. Yaḥyā l-Qaṭṭān is reported to rank the three scholars with the most hifz as al-Thawrī, Shu'ba, and Hushaym in the first two of these sources. It is important to recall the reports we cited earlier that indicate that Yaḥyā l-Qaṭṭān, despite being a Basran, was a follower of the madhhab of Sufyān al-Thawrī.

indicate, at best, an informal method of *hadīth*-transmitter criticism and may help explain the near total absence of any negative opinions of individual scholars in these early sources.⁹³

Ibn Abī Hātim has distinguished himself again, as in the case of Shu'ba, with the most substantial collection of critical reports on the authority of Sufyān al-Thawrī. He collated seventy-three reports from a variety of sources, the most important by far of which is Ṣāliḥ b. Aḥmad b. Ḥanbal's transmission of Ibn al-Madīnī's collection of comments from Yaḥya l-Qaṭṭān and Ibn Mahdī. All of the positive opinions are devoid of technical terms, and the negative ones are almost exclusively with respect to a faulty line of transmission and not a transmitter. This former category of opinions range from calling al-Mu'āfā b. 'Imrān the "saphire of the scholars" (yāqūtat al-'ulamā'), identifying Manṣūr, 'Abd al-Karīm al-Jazarī, Ayyūb, and 'Amr b. Dīnār as "sources free from doubt," and commenting that the ever-controversial Jābir al-Ju'fī was "most pious with regard to hadīth." Ibn Abī Ḥātim has even found a report in which al-Thawrī refused to write hadīth from a Murji'ī judge in Jurjān, but decided

⁹⁵ Thirty-one of the reports are of this *isnād*; other sources include his father (10 reports), Muḥammad b. Yaḥyā (7 reports), 'Alī b. al-Ḥasan al-Hasnajānī (4 reports),

and Muḥammad b. Sa'īd al-Muqrī (4 reports).

none-the-less to take his material from this judge's student!¹⁰⁰ Even a report concerning the reliability of Muḥammad al-Kalbī is crafted in a manner so that the word "mendacious" (*kadhib*) appears in the mouth of al-Kalbī with reference to his own transmission from Abū Ṣāliḥ on the authority of Ibn 'Abbās.¹⁰¹

There are three important findings that can be gleaned from Sufyān al-Thawrī's critical reports in the *Taqdima*. First, al-Thawrī's criticism is confined almost exclusively to defective *isnāds* instead of defective transmitters. In this sense he could perhaps be considered more of a *hadīth* editor than a critic. OB Secondly, while al-Thawrī is conservative with negative criticisms, he is lavish in his praise and willing, like Shu'ba, to defend a controversial scholar such as Jābir al-Ju'fī. The third, and perhaps most significant finding is that the only technical terms of *hadīth* criticism that appear are in the mouths of his students. These findings are consistent not only with the analysis of the critical opinions of Shu'ba, but support the argument of Ibn Hibbān in *Kītāb al-majrūhīn* that the second "craft" of *hadīth* criticism, namely *hadīth*-transmitter criticism (*al-jarh wa l-ta'dīl*) only began with the pupils of Sufyān al-Thawrī and his generation.

IV.4.5 Mālik b. Anas

Mālik's reputation in the eyes of later generations of Sunnī master hadīth critics revolves around his reliability in general, and his book, al-Muwaṭṭa', in particular. Despite the earlier citation that Yaḥyā l-Qaṭṭān universally favored Sufyān al-Thawrī to Mālik, we find that Ibn Mahdī considered Mālik to be the most sound scholar of hadīth,

102 Note the intriguing report transmitted by Wakī that al-Thawrī edited (kāna yusahhihu) the tafsīr of Ibn Abī Najīh; Tagdima, 79.

[&]quot;5 The only cases in which al-Thawrī explicitly declares an individual weak "ruda"(fuhu) that I have so far come across are: 1) on the authority of Yaḥyā l-Qaṭṭān with regard to 'Abd al-Ḥamīd b. Ja'far b. 'Abdullāh al-Anṣārī and 2) that he called 'Abbād b. Kathīr a liar (kadhdhāb); see Mawsū'at aqwāl al-Imām Aḥmad, II, 310 and Ṣaḥīḥ Muslim bi-sharḥ al-Nawawī, I, 86, respectively. Abū Nu'aym al-Iṣbahānī also includes al-Thawrī's opinion of 'Abbād in his Kūtāb al-ḍu'afā' (p. 122; #176) and this is the only negative opinion attributed to al-Thawrī among the 289 entries of his book.

⁹⁴ Tagdima, 69-83.

⁹⁶ Six of these reports consist of hadīth that al-Thawrī declared suspect (ankara) due to the fact that certain men in the isnād never met each other or were inaccurate; Taqdima, 70-1, 81-2. Note that all of these reports come from either Yaḥyā l-Qaṭṭān or Ibn Mahdī. The only case of al-Thawrī using the term "liar" (kadhdhāb) is with regard to 'Abd al-Wahhāb b. Mujāhid; Taqdima, 76. Note, however, that when al-Thawrī is asked about this same scholar in another report, he merely turns his face away and does not say anything. The only other negative phrases that I have come across is "it is odd ('ajaban) that x would transmit from y" with regard to Dāwūd b. Yazīd and al-Kalbī, and the expression nāsiyan (forgetful) with respect to Abān b. 'Ayyāsh; Taqdima, 73, 77.

⁷⁷ Taqdima, 75.

⁹⁸ ha'ulā'i l-a'yunu lladhīna lā yushakku fihim; Taqdima, 72-3.

⁹⁹ kāna war'an fi l-hadīth; Tagdima, 72. Another version reads: mā ra'aytu rajulan awra'a fi l-hadīth min Jābir al-Ju'fi, wa lā Manṣūr; Tagdima, 77.

¹⁰⁰ Taqdima, 80-1. The Murji'ī judge's name is Jawāb al-Taymī. In another report, al-Thawrī tells Ibn al-Mubārak to study with Yazīd al-Shāmī and to beware of his Qadarī tendencies; Taqdima, 72.

¹⁰¹ qāla lanā l-Kalbī: mā haddathtu 'an Abī Ṣālih 'an Ibn 'Abbās fa-huwa kadhibun fa-lā tanwihi; Taqdima, 73. This identical report is also present in al-Bukhārī, al-Du'afā' al-saghīr, 209.

to this observation, namely al-Thawri's purported use of the term $l\bar{a}$ ba'sa bihi with regard to Ibrāhīm b. Muhājir, although it is possible that this expression was articulated by his student Ibn Mahdī; Taqdima, 74.

¹⁰⁴ See above, IV.2.2. Of course, it is quite possible that technical terms of criticism may be found attributed to Sufyān al-Thawrī in other sources, since I have only surveyed a small portion of the literature.

and that neither Ibn Ḥanbal nor Ibn Ma'īn criticized a man from whom Mālik took reports. Do Both Ibn Mahdī and al-Shāfi'ī are reported as calling the *Muwaṭṭa'* the most sound book after the Qur'ān, and the latter jurist is reported to have said "if a hadīth of Mālik comes to you cling to it with all your might!" Alī b. al-Madīnī went so far as to declare that every Medinan from whom Mālik did not transmit hadīth had some sort of defect (fī hadīthihi shay'un), and reports that Mālik's response to Bishr b. 'Umar al-Zahrānī's question about the probity of a transmitter was "Do you see him in my notebooks? Were he reliable (thiqa), you would have seen him [there]." Do you would have

This last anecdote illustrates a unique feature of Mālik's hadīth criticism, namely the employment of several technical terms that became normative for this discipline. Despite the paucity of critical reports found in Ibn Abī Ḥātim's Taqdima, the term thiqa appears no fewer than ten times in the chapter devoted to Mālik, seven of which are in the negative (laysa bi-thiqa). 109 The technical expression thiqa ma'mūn is also found in a comment concerning Ayyūb al-Sakhtiyānī's selectivity of hadīth-transmitters in al-Kāmil fī du'afā' al-rijāl. 110 Three other standard critical terms are present among Mālik's opinions in the Taqdima, 111 as well as the unique term for which he is most particularly famous, namely "an antichrist among the antichrists" (dajjāl min dajājila), for Ibn Isḥāq. 112 Ibn 'Uyayna is quoted as declaring Mālik to be the strictest of the critics with regard to transmitters

(ryāl), and there is a report that Mālik urged his students to shun the hadīth from any of the following four types of people: one who is senile, a proselytizer of religious innovation (sectarianism), a liar, and "a pious Shaykh who does not understand what he is saying." In conclusion, the evidence we have scrutinized in these sources not only testifies to Mālik's status as a bona fide hadīth critic, but indicates that Mālik was one of the first scholars to engage in hadīth-transmitter criticism and employ its technical vocabulary.

IV.4.6 Sufyān b. 'Uyayna

If my hypothesis that hadīth-transmitter criticism emerged from general hadīth criticism during the second half of the second/eighth century is correct, then one would expect to find technical terms associated with the long-lived Meccan scholar Ibn 'Uyayna. Although Ibn 'Uyayna is not counted among the "three men who made hadīth criticism into a craft" according to Ibn Hibban, his presence among Muslim's five Imams who criticized weak transmitters is significant. 114 Ibn 'Uyayna has more opinions preserved in al-Bukhārī's al-Du'afā' al-saghīr than any other member of his generation, and three of them explicitly state "he declared [the transmitter] to be unreliable" (yuda"ifuhu).115 Ibn 'Adī reports that Sufyān al-Thawrī asked Ibn 'Uyayna about the scholars of the Hijāz and that no scholar compiled a greater amount of material (jam') than he.116 The most important early source for the preservation of Ibn 'Uyayna's critical opinions is, not surprisingly, Ibn Abī Hātim's collection of eighty-six reports in the Tagdima.

The critical opinions of Ibn 'Uyayna found in the Taqdima are of

¹⁰⁵ Taqdima, 14 (Ibn Mahdī), 17 (Ibn Hanbal and Ibn Ma'īn; see also Ibn 'Adī, al-Kāmil, I, 102: "we do not mind not asking about [the reliability] of a man from whom Mālik transmits"). Note that there are also reports that Yaḥyā l-Qaṭṭān considered Mālik to be the most sound (aṣaḥḥu) scholar (ibid., I, 102), although Ibn Abī Hātim's interpretation of qawm to refer to al-Thawrī and Ibn 'Uyayna in the report mā fi l-qawmi aṣaḥhun hadīthan may be incorrect; Taqdima, 15.

¹⁰⁶ idhā jā'aka hadīthu Mālikin fa'ushdud bi-hi yadayka; Ibn 'Adī, al-Kāmil, I, 103 and Taqdima, 14, for a similar report. For the Muwaṭṭa' as second to the Qur'ān, see Kūāb al-majrūhīn, I, 41-2.

¹⁰⁷ Ibn 'Adī, al-Kāmil, I, 103.

¹⁰⁸ hal ra'aytahu fi kutubi? qultu lā qāla law kāna thiqatan la-ra'aytahu; Taqdima, 24; Ibn 'Adī, al-Kāmil, I, 103. This report dates back at least to the introduction of Muslim's Sahīh; see Sahīh Muslim bi-sharh al-Nawawī, I, 107.

¹⁰⁹ Taqdima, pp. 19, 22, 24 (six examples of replies to Bishr b. 'Umar's questions). Five of these opinions can be found in the Introduction to Muslim's Sahīh; see Sahīh Muslim bi-sharh al-Nawawī, I, 107.

¹¹⁰ Ibn 'Adī, al-Kāmil, I, 74.

These terms include laysa bi-dhāk, sālih, and kadhdhāb; Taqdima, 19 and 21.

¹¹² Tagdima, 20.

¹¹³ lā yu'khadhu l-ʿilmu min arbaʿa, wa khudhū minman siwā dhālika; lā yu'khadhu min safīhin mu'linin bi-safahihi, wa in kāna arwā l-nāsi; wa lā min sāhibi hawan yad ū l-nāsa ilā hawāhu; wa lā min kadhdhābin yakdhibu fī ahādīthi l-nāsi, wa in kunta lā tattahimuhu an yakdhiba ʿalā rasūli llāhi; wa lā min shaykhin lahu ʿibādatun wa fadlun idhā kāna lā yaʿrifu mā yuḥaddithu; Ibn ʿAdī, al-Kāmil, I, 103. Ibn ʿUyayna's opinion can be found in the Taqdima, 23 and al-Kāmil, I, 102; note that the isnāds in both sources include ʿAlī b. al-Madīnī and Ṣālih b. Ahmad.

¹¹⁴ Muslim also cites Ibn 'Uyayna's criticisms of the Shī'ī (rāfidī) beliefs of Jābir al-Ju'fī in the introduction of his Sahīh; see Sahīh Muslim bi-sharh al-Nawawī, I, 92-3.

These three examples are located on pages 29, 63, 252 of al-Du'afā' al-saghīr. The other four opinions include identifying two Qadarīs, one Ibādī, and one person as "sub-hāfiz;" ibid., 134, 191, 92, and 283, respectively.

¹¹⁶ Ibn 'Adī, al-Kāmil, I, 107-8.

capital significance because they include several technical terms and indicate the context in which these terms were articulated. The expression thiga (reliable) occurs in eight different reports, all of which indicate that this comment was uttered by Ibn 'Uyayna immediately after he mentioned a name in the isnad of a particular hadith.117 The term sadūg appears once and two reports contain expressions based on the term sidg (sincere). 118 Another report includes both of these positive critical terms in the superlative form, namely "most reliable and most sincere of the people." There is a unique example of yuda "ifuhu in the mouth of Ibn 'Uyayna's student Nu'aym b. Hammād and a report on the authority of 'Alī b. al-Madīnī that Ibn 'Uyayna rejected (laraka) the transmissions of another scholar. 120 Another example of negative criticism is Ibn 'Uyayna's advice to his students not to listen to legal hadīth from Bagiyya b. al-Walīd, but to listen to his material pertaining to the rewards of the Hereafter and other topics. 121 A final example of hadīth-transmitter criticism, albeit a nontechnical one, is the quote of Ibn 'Uyayna that "when I used to hear al-Hasan b. 'Umāra transmit [hadīth] on the authority of al-Zuhrī and 'Amr b. Dīnār, I would put my fingers in my ears!"122

Ibn 'Uyayna qualifies as a genuine hadīth-transmitter critic on the basis of the evidence I have subjected to analysis. He followed the lead of Shu'ba, in that he was willing to criticize transmitters instead of individual hadīth, and to employ technical terms that came into circulation on a rather limited scale in the circles of Mālik. Ibn 'Uvayna's demonstrated willingness to engage in hadīth-transmitter criticism distinguishes him from his senior contemporary namesake Sufyān al-Thawrī and may explain why Muslim included the former Sufyān among his list of five Imāms instead of the arguably more illustrious Sufvān al-Thawrī.

IV.4.7 'Abdullāh b. al-Mubārak

The evidence in favor of the identification of Ibn al-Mubārak as a hadīth critic is similar to that which I presented with respect to Ibn 'Uyayna. The initial impression of Ibn al-Mubārak that one might receive from the ten primary sources of this chapter is that of a pious militant scholar who is an unlikely candidate for the appellation of critic, especially in light of the report that he "never rejected the hadith of a man until he was informed of something that made it impossible for him to defend [the transmitter]."123 Despite this caveat, it is significant to observe that al-Bukhārī mentions seven men whose hadīth Ibn al-Mubārak rejected (taraka) and one man whom he is reported to have declared unreliable (yuda"ifuhu).124 Ibn Abī Hātim also records the names of four men whose hadīth Ibn al-Mubārak was observed by his pupils to reject, as well as two reports in which the technical term thiga is present. 125 Ibn al-Mubārak also states his preference for the Zuhrī material transmitted by Yūnus al-Aylī for its accuracy due to the fact that it was copied directly from

The comment "and he was reliable" (wa kāna thiqa), occurs almost always in the context of an isnād which Ibn 'Uvayna is relating for a hadīth whose matn is never included in the report. An example for this is haddathanā Sufyān [b. 'Uyayna] 'an al-Aḥwas ibn Ḥaḥīm wa kāna thiqa; Taqdima, 41. Other examples can be found of pages 42-5 of the Tagdima. Only in one case does Ibn 'Uyayna repeat the word thiga three times in what is clearly an effort, if authentic, to praise his beloved master-teacher 'Arnr b. Dīnār; Tagdima, 49.

For sadūg, see Tagdima, 37; for ahl al-sidg, 41; and ma'ādin al-sidg, 42.

¹¹⁹ haddathanā Ibrāhīm ibn Maysara, wa kāna asdaga l-nāsi wa awthagahum; Tagdima, 41.

Tagdima, 42, 46, respectively. Note that Ibn 'Uyayna was the only scholar of his generation whom 'Alī b. al-Madīnī was able to study with directly without the intermediary of Yaḥyā l-Qaṭṭān or Ibn Mahdī. Twenty-one of the reports in this section of the Tagdima were transmitted from him through Ibn Hanbal's son Sālih to Ibn Abī Hātim; it is somewhat surprising that none of them include the technical term thiaa, although this might be due to the fact that they were specific answers to Ibn al-Madīnī's questions and we have just observed that Ibn 'Uyayna may have preferred to use the term in the course of relating hadith.

lā tasma'ū min Baqiyya mā kāna fī sunna, wa-isma'ū minhu mā kāna fī thawābin wa ghayrihi; Taqdima, 41. Note that this differentiation with regards to the reliability of the transmitter between legal and piety-inducing hadith is found also in the Introduction of Muslim's Sahīh. If this report is authentic, it may be one of the earliest examples of a critic who relied upon the nature of the content of the matn of hadith to determine the degree of strictness that one should apply to the *isnād*; in other words. the transmitters in the isnād had to be of the highest level in the cases of legal hadith, and of a medium level with regard to non-legal reports.

¹²² kuntu idhā sami'tu al-Ḥasan ibn Umāra yarwī 'an al-Zuhrī wa 'Amr ibn Dīnār ja'altu isba'ī fī udhunī; Tagdima, 44.

¹²³ kāna Ibn al-Mubārak lā yatruku ḥadītha l-rajuli hattā yablughahu 'anhu l-shay'u lladhī lā yastatī'u an yadfa'ahu; Taqdima, 270. The version of this report on page 274 substitutes yatrahu for yatruku.

¹²⁴ Al-Du'afā' al-saghīr, 28, 34, 38, 61, 120, 333; 65 (yuḍa"ifuhu). Three additional critical reports involving Ibn al-Mubarāk can be found in this book on pages 57 (ahlu l-Basra yuda "funa[hu]), 73 (nasabahu), and 146. This last example is an anecdote that Ibn al-Mubarak was eager to hear from a scholar until he heard a suspect hadith regarding taxation and then decided not to go and study with him. Several critical opinions of Ibn al-Mubārak are also sprinkled throughout Muslim's introduction to his Saḥīḥ; see Saḥīḥ Muslim bi-sharḥ al-Nawawī, I, 80-2, 86, and 106.

¹²⁵ The four transmitters rejected by Ibn al-Mubārak can be found in the Tagdima, 271-4; the thiqa reports are 273-4. There are also unique reports that include the terms sālih and sadūg; ibid., 271, 274.

the teacher's notebooks, even though he acknowledges that the student with the largest quantity of Zuhrī reports is Ma'mar. Despite some initial skepticism as to whether Ibn al-Mubārak can accurately be described as a hadīth critic, our analysis of his opinions preserved by al-Bukhārī and Ibn Abī Ḥātim makes his case as strong, if not stronger, than for those of Ibn 'Uyayna and Mālik. 127

IV.4.8 Wakī' b. al-Jarrāḥ

The evidence in support of Waki's critical capacity is congruous to that which I just extracted for Ibn al-Mubārak. There is one report in Ibn Sa'd's al-Tabaqāt al-kabīr in which Wakī' declares Sulaymān b. Burayda to be "sounder and more reliable with regard to hadīth than his brother ('Abdullāh)" and that employs the superlative form of the technical terms sahīh and thiqa. 128 Al-Bukhārī reports two men whose hadīth Wakī' rejected, one whom he declared unreliable, and another individual whom he declared to be thiga. 129 Ibn Abī Hātim reports no fewer than sixteen reports in which Waki employs the technical term thiga as well as two of the earliest examples of the term thabt. The fact that several of these examples in which Waki's evaluates a transmitter occur in the course of his recitation of the isnād of a hadīth is consistent with our finding with regard to the practice of Ibn 'Uyayna and suggests that this was the method by which the first hadith-transmitter critics informed their students of the reliability of their predecessors. There are a few negative reports, including one example of yuda"ifu and another in which Waki remarks that "al-Mu'allā b. Hilāl came to us and his books were among the soundest (asahh) books; then several things became clear and we were

no longer able to transmit anything on his authority."¹³⁰ The inescapable conclusion from the evidence gleaned from these three early sources is that Wakī' was a *hadīth*-transmitter critic in the same style as his senior contemporaries Ibn 'Uyayna and Ibn al-Mubārak, even though he seems to have been relatively reluctant to reject and swift to praise his erudite predecessors found in the *isnāds* of the *hadīth* which he transmitted.¹³¹

IV.4.9 Yaḥyā b. Sa'īd al-Qaṭṭān and 'Abd al-Raḥmān b. Mahdī

The final primary critics of the first period, Yahyā l-Qattān and Ibn Mahdī, are the two scholars whom Ibn Hibbān identified as the founders of the craft of hadīth-transmitter criticism in his tabaqāt presentation in Kitāb al-majrūhīn. 132 Their presence in many of the isnāds of critical reports that preserve the opinions of their teachers Shu'ba and Sufyan al-Thawri in the Tagdima has been indicated throughout this chapter. Ibn 'Adī includes at the beginning of the third tabaga in al-Kāmil fī du'afā' al-rijāl both Ibn Mahdī's list of four Imāms and three reports in which Yahyā l-Qattān mentions that he asked al-Awzā'ī, al-Thawrī, Ibn 'Uyayna, Shu'ba, and Mālik what one should do about the transmitter who makes errors in his hadīth. 133 The universal response, "clarify his state/condition" (bayyin amrahu), can be seen as a pseudo-legal responsum for the permissibility of hadīthtransmitter criticism from the most prominent religious scholars of the generation prior to Yahyā l-Qattān. The significance of this anecdote is not whether Yahyā l-Qattān actually asked each of these scholars for their blessing prior to criticizing many transmitters, but

130 ataynā l-Mu'allā ibn Hilāl wa inna kutubahu la-min aşaḥḥi kutubin thumma zaharal ashyā'un mā nagdiru an nuhadditha 'anhu bi-shay'in; Tagdima, 225.

 $^{^{126}}$ Taqdima, 272. If the report that Ibn al-Mubārak called Yūnus's book "sound" (sahih) is authentic, this might be the earliest reference to a sound book in the Islamic tradition.

¹²⁷ Al-Bukhārī's pupil al-Tirmidhī also includes a list of a dozen men whose *hadīth* Ibn al-Mubārak rejected; see al-Tirmidhī, *al-Jāmi' al-ṣaḥīḥ*, V, 740.

¹²⁸ kāna aşahhahumā hadīthan wa awthaqahumā; Ibn Sa'd, al-Ṭabaqāt al-kubrā, VII, 115.

¹²⁹ Al-Bukhārī, al-Du'afā' al-ṣaghīr, 64 and 108 (tarakahu); 348 (thiqa). Wakī' is also quoted as saying that "the people say that 'Abd al-Wahhāb b. Mujāhid b. Jabr did not hear anything from his father," that he "spoke cautiously" (yatakallamu fīh) about Yaḥyā b. al-'Alā' al-Rāzī, and that he declared Yamān b. al-Mughīra to have suspect (munkar) hadīth; ibid., 156, 253, and 259.

¹³¹ For a particularly useful collection of Wakī's critical opinions, see the editor's introduction of the recently published edition of his Kītāb al-zuhd, ed. 'Abd al-Rahmān 'Abd al-Jabbār al-Farīwā'ī, 3 vols. in 2 (Riyadh: Dār al-Ṣumay'ī, 1994), 89-4

¹³² See above, IV.2.2.

¹³³ Ibn 'Adī, al-Kāmil, I, 80. The first version reads: sa'altu l-Awzā'ī, wa Sufyān, wa Mālik—wa azunnuhu qāla Shu'ba—'an al-rajuli yahimu fī l-hadīthi fa-qālū: bayyin, bayyin. The second version is: sa'altu Sufyān ibn Sa'īd wa Shu'ba wa Mālik wa Ibn 'Uyayna 'an al-rajuli yuttahamu aw lā yahfazu qālū jamī'an: bayyin amrahu. The third report is identical to the second, but with different isnād. The first version comes from the secondary critic al-Fallās, whereas the second and third ones comes from the Basran 'Affān b. Muslim. A similar report is found in al-Tirmidhī, al-Jāmī' al-sahīḥ, V, 739.

rather that later critics cast him in the role of a petitioner before the most eminent religious scholars of his day and thus saw him as the champion of a new practice whose potential for causing strife (fitna) clearly worried many of its practioners.¹³⁴

Ibn Mahdī is also the earliest scholar to explain how an expert of hadīth engages in criticism. He is quoted as stating that "I know the sound from the weak hadīth like a doctor can determine whether a person is insane" in all three of the tabaqāt presentations, and he employs the analogy of a coin trader in Ibn 'Adī's book. 135 This latter explanation is transmitted by 'Alī b. al-Madīnī to al-Bukhārī and includes the important argument that the means by which one becomes proficient at hadīth criticism is through "lengthy [hadīth] sessions, debates, and experience." That this justification for the technique of hadīth criticism is associated with Ibn Mahdī in all three of our tabaqāt presentations is a particularly strong indication of his role as a hadīth-transmitter critic in the eyes of the the third/ninth century hadīth scholars, even though relatively few of his critical comments appear to have survived.

The absence of Ibn Mahdī's critical opinions in our hitherto most fecund source for them, namely Ibn Abī Ḥātim's *Taqdima*, is compensated for partially by al-Bukhārī's al-Đu'afā' al-ṣaghīr. Ibn Mahdī's presence is a little smaller than what one might expect, as he is cited in only seven cases, a mere two of which involve actively rejecting a transmitter. Yaḥyā l-Qaṭṭān, by contrast, dominates al-Đu'afā' al-ṣaghīr. Al-Bukhārī mentions ten men whom Yaḥyā l-Qaṭṭān rejects, strength whom he declares unreliable, to from whom he does not transmit hadīth, to and another thirteen mostly negative opinions.

The whole gamut of technical terms that we have been watching carefully is present in the succinct remarks of both Ibn Mahdī and Yaḥyā l-Qaṭṭān found in al-Bukhārī's small book, and it is clear that these two men played a major role as the bridge between their teachers who were hesitant to criticize individual transmitters, at least on a large scale, and their relentlessly inquisitive pupils whose work I shall be analyzing in the second part of this study. 142

IV.5 What about al-Shāfi^cī?

Since the topic of hadīth is a constant theme in the legal writings of Muhammad b. Ibrīs al-Shāfi'ī (d. 204/820), one may have expected to find al-Shāfi'ī listed among the master hadīth critics in the ten sources that I examined. Joseph Schacht reconstructed the complexities and some of the paradoxes of al-Shāfi'ī's articulation of the elevated legal authority of hadīth over half a century ago in Ongins of Muhammadan Jurisprudence. 143 The paradoxes that Schacht correctly identified include: 1) al-Shāfi'ī's frequent reliance upon sahāba reports as evidence despite his inability to provide a theoretical reason for the intrinsic authority of anything less than a prophetic hadīth; 2) his acceptance of the mursal hadīth from senior tābi'ūn; and 3) his "careless" citation of isnāds. Schacht's observation of most interest for this chapter is that al-Shāfi'ī and his contemporaries were aware of technical terms of hadīth criticism that "had been developed by the specialists on traditions" and that "it was left to al-Shāfi'ī to introduce as much of the specialized criticism as existed in his time into legal science."144

From whom did al-Shāfi'ī obtain this knowledge of hadīth criticism? Schacht does not offer any suggestions in these chapters, but,

¹³⁴ This idea is stated explicitly in the last report in this section from Abū Mushir who replied "no" to the question "Do you consider [clarifying the transmitter's condition] a type of sedition (fitna)?" Ibn 'Adī, al-Kāmil, I, 80.

¹³⁵ kamā ya'rifu l-tabību l-majnūna; Taqdima, 252; Ibn Ḥibbān, Kītāb al-majrūhīn, I, 32; Ibn 'Adī, al-Kāmil, I, 118. A more sophisticated explanation of the necessary skills for this craft from the mouth of Abū Ḥātim can be found in the Taqdima, 249-50.

¹³⁶ li-tūti l-majālisa aw al-munāzara wa l-khibra; Ibn 'Adī, al-Kāmil, I, 118.

¹³⁷ Al-Bukhārī, al-Du'afā' al-ṣaghīr, 33, 52 (reading "Yaḥyā wa Ibn Mahdī" instead of "Yaḥyā ibn Mahdī" in the printed text), 165, 210, 232, 239, and 258.

¹³⁸ Ibid., 33, 49, 73, 152, 163, 170, 181, 231, 257.

¹³⁹ Ibid., 133, 155, 173, 232, 250.

¹⁴⁰ Ibid., 92, 210.

¹⁴¹ Ibid., 78, 82, 115, 132, 135, 146, 154, 164, 176, 177, 220, 229, 233.

¹⁴² Note that Ibn Ḥanbal quotes Yaḥyā l-Qaṭṭān in numerous critical reports, the vast majority of which are negative; for example, Mawsū'at aqwāl al-Imām Aḥmad, I, 38–40 (Ibrāhīm b. Muḥammad), 154 (Bishr b. Ḥarb), 173–4 (Thābit al-Bunānī); II, 141 (Sharīk al-Qāḍī), 314 (Abū Shihāb al-Ḥannāṭ), 322 ('Abd al-Raḥmān b. Ḥarmala); III, 8 ('Aṭā' b. Abī Maymūna), 159 (Fiṭr b. Khalīfa), 207 (Layth b. Abī Sulaym), 358 (Maṭar b. Ṭahmān); IV, 180 (Yūnus b. Yazīd al-Aylī), 193 (Abū Bakr b. 'Ayyāsh).

¹⁴³ See chapters 3 and 5.

¹⁴¹ These terms include thābit, mashhūr, muttaşil, munqaṭi', mursal, ḍaʿīf, and munkar; Schacht, Origins, 36. One should also add thiqa to this list.

given the preponderance of hadīth in the Risāta from his teachers Mālik and Ibn 'Uyayna, 145 whose credentials as critics are highly plausible, it would appear that these two Ḥijāzī authorities introduced al-Shāfi'ī to this new discipline. The necessity of a good education in the discipline of hadīth criticism in al-Shāfi'ī's jurisprudence is obvious from his core principle that

every [hadīth] related by reliable persons as going back to the Prophet, is authoritative and can be rejected only if another authoritative [hadīth] from the Prophet contradicts it; if it is a case of [abrogation] of a former ordinance by a later, the later is accepted; if nothing is known about an [abrogation], the more reliable of the two [hadīth] is to be followed; if both are equally reliable, the one more in keeping with the Qur'ān and the remaining undisputed parts of the sunna of the Prophet is to be chosen . . . (emphases mine). 146

Furthermore, al-Shāfi'ī explicitly rejects the practice of the imprecise transmission of <code>hadīth</code> (bi-l-ma'nā) and comes out stongly against the practice of tadlīs in the Risāla.¹⁴⁷ Finally, al-Shāfi'ī's definition of the irregular (shādhdh) hadīth left a deep imprint on the Sunnī disciplines of <code>hadīth</code> ('ulūm al-hadīth), as it is found in the books of Ibn Abī Ḥātim, Ibn 'Adī, and even Ibn al-Ṣalāḥ's Muqaddima that I discussed above in the second chapter.¹⁴⁸

The most important question that arises is whether or not al-Shāfi'ī was himself a hadīth critic. Wael Hallag has answered this question unequivocably in the negative with his assertion that "[al-Shāfi'i] was neither a loyal traditionist nor an outstanding traditionist."149 Melchert observes that al-Shāfi'ī "calls on traditionists as outside experts rather than engaging directly, himself, in hadīth criticism."150 This finding is supported by several of the authors whose works I have examined in this chapter. Ibn Abī Hātim does not include al-Shāfi'ī among among his master critics in the Tagdima, and his book devoted to the virtues and manners of al-Shāfi'ī includes an insubstantial number of critical comments, which are occasionally quite colorful, regarding individual hadith transmitters. 151 Ibn 'Adi, who provides a relatively extensive entry for al-Shāfi'ī among critics of the fourth tabaga of hadīth experts, reports only two examples of his grades, one of which is "unknown" (la yu'rafu) and the other of which is hāfiz, in al-Kāmil fī du'afā' al-rijāl. 152 Neither al-Khatīb al-Baghdādī nor al-Mizzī include any evidence of al-Shāfi'ī's acumen in hadith-transmitter criticism in their biographical notices, 153 and the latter reports that al-Bukhārī only included two of al-Shāfi'ī's legal definitions in his Sahīh, and that neither he nor Muslim incorporated any of al-Shāfi'ī's hadīth in their books. 154 Despite the lack of evidence of al-Shāfi'i's influence upon the discipline of hadīth-transmitter criticism, he is remembered quite fondly in the books of the fourth/tenth

¹⁴⁵ Majid Khadduri counts 38 hadīth from Mālik, 35 from Ibn 'Uyayna, and six or fewer hadīth from his remaining named authorities in the Risāla; see his translation al-Imām Muḥammad ibn Idris al-Shāfi'i's al-Risāla fi uṣūl al-fiqh: Treatise on the Foundations of Islamic Jurisprudence, second edition (Cambridge: The Islamic Texts Society, 1997), 26. Mālik and Ibn 'Uyayna are also particularly prominent sources of hadīth in al-Shāfi'i's book Ikhtilāf al-hadīth (Beirut: Mu'assasa al-Kutub al-Thaqafiyya, 1985)

¹⁴⁶ Scacht, Origins, 12.

Khadduri, al-Risāla, 239-40. There is a serious mistake in this edition concerning the definition of tadlīs; the text should read "He must not be an interpolator, attributing to someone whom he has met that which he has not heard from him" instead of "someone whom he has not met;" ibid., 240. The Arabic reads: bariyyan min an yakūna mudallisan—yuḥaddithu 'an man laqiya mā lam yasma' minhu; al-Shāfi'ī, al-Risāla, ed. 'Abd al-Fattāḥ Kabbārah (Beirut: Dār al-Nafā'is, 1999), 197. For more references to al-Shāfi'ī's comments on tadlīs, see Schacht, Origins, 37.

¹⁴⁸ Al-Shāfi'i's definition of a shādhdh hadīth, that it is "not a hadīth that only one reliable transmitter transmits, but rather a hadīth which many reliable transmitters transmit, one of whom transmits it in a unique and contradictory manner" (laysa l-shādhdhu min al-hadīth an yaruiya l-thiqatu hadīthan lam yaruihi ghayruhu innamā l-shādhdhu min al-hadīth an yaruiya l-thiqātu hadīthan fa-yashidhdha 'anhum wāḥidun fa-yukhāli-fahum); Ibn Abī Ḥātim, Ādāb al-Shāfi'ī wa manāqibuhu (Cairo, 1954), 233, Ibn 'Adī, al-Kāmil, I, 124 (slightly different wording), and Muqaddima Ibn al-Ṣalāḥ, 237 (another slight yariant).

¹⁴⁹ Wael Hallaq, "Was al-Shāfi'ī the Master Architect of Islamic Jurisprudence?" *IJMES*, 25 (1993), 593. Hallaq's reasoning for this comment comes from al-Shāfi'ī's association with several Mu'tazila, and from the facts that he "betrayed his comrades when he insisted on the essential role of *qiyas* in the law" and that his basic knowledge of *hadīth* was "flawed."

¹⁵⁰ Melchert, "Traditionist-Jurisprudents and the Framing of Islamic Law," 393–4.
151 Examples include al-Shāfi'ī's opinion that the hadīth of Ḥarām b. 'Uthmān is "illicit" (harām); that Abū 'Āliya al-Riyāḥī's hadīth is "hot air" (riyāḥ, literally "wind"), and that the books of al-Wāqidī are mendacious (kadhib); see Ibn Abī Ḥātim, Ādāb al-Shāfi'ī, 217–21. Some less colorful comments are al-Shāfi'ī's declaration of Dāwūd b. Shābūr as among the reliable transmitters (min al-thiqāt) and 'Abd al-Raḥmān b. Zayd b. Aslam as weak (da"afahu); ibid., 223, 227.

¹⁵² Ibn 'Adī, al-Kāmil, İ, 124. The unknown scholar is Hāni' b. Hāni' and the hāfiz is the Kufan al-Manṣūr b. al-Mu'tamir. Al-Shāfi'ī also remarks, in this same report, that neither Abū Qilāba nor Ibn Abī Laylā saw the saḥābī Bilāl in person.

¹¹⁵³ Ál-Khāṭīb, *Tārīkh Baghdād*, II, 56–73 and al-Mizzī, *Tahdhīb al-kamāl*, XXIV, 355–81.

¹⁵⁴ Ibid., 380-1. Al-Shāfi'ī's legal definitions are found in the chapters on zakāt (bāb fī l-rikāz al-khums) and sales (buyū': bāb tafsīr al-'arāyā); see Ibn Ḥajar, Fatḥ al-bārī, IV, 133 and V, 134.

century *hadīth* scholars and their successors, presumably because of the importance he attached to their research that was unappreciated by most aspiring jurists of this era.¹⁵⁵

IV.6 Conclusion

The purpose of this chapter has been to elucidate the narrative of the emergence of hadīth criticism on the basis of the appropriate texts of the Sunnī hadīth literature and to evaluate its plausibility. I selected ten major sources and accumulated ninety-two names of potential critics. The analysis of these men included both chronological and hierarchical tripartite divisions that transformed the raw data into clearly identifiable categories. The second level of analysis involved translating the unwieldy tables into a one-page summary of seventeen primary and twenty-two secondary critics, whom I arranged into seven generations in order to clarify the historical narrative of this discipline. I argued on the basis of the extant textual evidence that the major Sunnī hadīth critics of the second and third periods of our historical development scheme were unequivocal critics, but I felt obliged to affirm the accuracy of this appellation for the nine primary critics of the first period. This defense was necessary due to a recent Western scholar's skepticism of the critical credentials of contemporaries of Shu'ba and Sufyān al-Thawrī, and, more significantly, because these scholars were the immediate predecessors to the authors of the three major third/ninth century texts which I subject to a rigorous analysis in the second part of this book.

I found a remarkable degree of consistency between the major

early sources and both Muslim's list of five Imams and the story of the two-phase development of the craft of hadīth criticism as articulated by Ibn Hibban in his Kītāb al-majrūḥīn. My analysis of the rise in the application of technical terms of hadīth-transmitter criticism found primarily in Ibn Abī Hātim's Taqdima and al-Bukhārī's al-Du'afa' al-saghīr was the strongest testimony for the plausibility of Ibn Hibban's explanation of the two-stage development of hadīth criticism. The three senior primary critics, al-Awzā'ī, Shu'ba, and Sufyān al-Thawrī do not appear to have employed any technical terms in the sources that I surveyed, whereas Mālik and Ibn 'Uyayna did so on a limited scale. Since the careers of al-Awzā'ī, Shu'ba, and Sufyān al-Thawrī overlap those of Mālik and Ibn 'Uyayna, it is quite conceivable that they too employed some of these technical terms as early as the first half of the second/eighth century. If Dickinson's argument that Ibn Abī Ḥātim attempted dishonestly to cast Shu'ba and his contemporaries as critics is tenable, it is remarkable that Ibn Abī Hātim did not include any examples from his vast repetoire of reports in which these men use the term thiqa and yet did choose to include multiple thiqa reports on the authority of a scholar like Wakī^c. The only scholar of the nine primary critics whose capacity as a critic is not supported strongly by the limited selection of early texts I have studied is that of the eldest one, al-Awzā'ī; as he is neither included in the list of the five Imams of Muslim nor among Ibn Hibban's three "founders of the craft of hadith criticism," I would like to suggest tentatively that his juridical acumen and intuition of the sunna caused later Eastern scholars to bestow an "honorary doctorate" of hadīth critic upon him despite the absence of clear evidence in support of his proficiency in this discipline. 156

The findings of this chapter have serious implications for both this book and the general approach to *hadīth* literature in Western scholarship. The most significant finding is that the eight primary critics for whom the evidence in support of their practice of *hadīth* criticism is credible all lived *prior* to the composition of al-Shāfiʿrʾs *Risāla*. I remarked in the introduction of this book that Schacht and his followers have credited this treatise that was composed near the end

¹³⁵ Al-Shāfiʿīʾs relationship to the hadīth scholars of the third/ninth century remains hazy; Ibn Saʿd does not mention him and Ibn Abī Ḥātim mentions the lengths to which his teacher Abū Zurʿa al-Rāzī went in acquiring the books of al-Shāfiʿī in Egypt; Ibn Abī Ḥātim, Ādāb al-Shāfiʿī, 75. Hallaq also provides a list of some negative comments by Ibn Ḥanbal, Ibn Maʿīn, and other scholars that has been preserved in Fakhr al-Dīn al-Rāzīʾs hagiography of al-Shāfiʿī; see Hallaq, "Was al-Shāfiʿī the Master Architect?" p. 594. Perhaps the most amusing story regarding the relationship between al-Shāfiʿī and the hadīth scholars of this period is the report that Ibn Rāhawayh married a woman in Marw solely because she possessed the books of al-Shāfiʿī (lam yatazauwaj bi-hā illā li-hāli kutubi l-Shāfiʿī); ibid., 64. On a more serious note, Ibn Abī Ḥātim recounts that Ibn Rāhawayh arranged his book al-Jāmiʿ al-kabīr according to the chapters of al-Shāfiʿī's book (unnamed), while his al-Jāmiʿ al-saghīr was modeled on the book by the same title by Sufyān al-Thawrī; ibid.

¹⁵⁶ Recall, however, that Bouzenita's study of al-Awzā'ī cited above in note 57 provides examples of al-Awzā'ī's employment of critical terms extracted from two Syrian sources.

of al-Shāfi'r's life with sublime powers and immediate global influence. The sources I have engaged, which are all significant works located within the Sunnī tradition of hadīth scholarship, tell a radically different story, namely that the first multi-topic hadīth books (tasnīf or musannaf)¹⁵⁷ were compiled between the deaths of al-Zuhrī and al-Awzā'ī (c. 120-150/738-767) and that the rise of hadīth criticism at the level of the individual hadīth (Sufyān al-Thawrī) and occasionally at the level of transmitter (Shu'ba) was simultaneous with this development. The basic technical term for reliablible, thiqa, appears in the opinions of Mālik and Ibn 'Uyayna, whereas the term for rejection, taraka, was used by their pupils. The last major term to enter circulation appears to be the one for unreliable transmitters, namely da'īf, since it is only found in the third person, usually in the mouths of Yahyā l-Qattān (d. 198/813), Ibn Mahdī (d. 198/814), or their contemporaries. Despite the small sample of critical reports upon which this argument is based, the combination of the high degree of consensus as to the identities of the nine primary critics across the centuries of the ten primary sources analyzed in this chapter with the actual critical reports preserved in books like the Taqdima and al-Du'afa' al-saghar leaves us with a plausible narrative of the first two generations of master hadīth critics who set the stage for the major works of Ibn Sa'd (d. 230/845), Ibn Ma'īn (d. 233/848), and Ibn Hanbal (d. 241/855). We can only hope that future research will uncover more examples of the critical opinions of these early scholars, the majority of which seem to have been either forgotten or overshadowed by the accomplishments of the critics of the third/ninth century, in order to bury all doubts as to the authenticity of the periodization that I have proposed in this chapter.

CHAPTER FIVE

THE GENERATION OF IBN SA'D, IBN MA'ĪN, AND IBN HANBAL: A PROSOPOGRAPHICAL STUDY

V.1

We have arrived at the generation in which the three scholars whose texts I shall examine in the remaining chapters of this book flourished. This generation corresponds closely with the eighth tabaqa of the Tadhkirat al-huffāz which I described briefly at the beginning of the third phase of hadīth scholarship in the third chapter. It also follows immediately after the first generation of hadīth critics whose contributions to the crafts of hadīth criticism and hadīth-transmitter criticism I have just assessed in the previous chapter of this study. The goal of this chapter is to provide a panoramic view of the religious and intellectual milieu of the first half of the third/ninth century during which Ibn Sa'd, Ibn Ma'īn and Ibn Ḥanbal studied and taught prior to a rigorous analysis of their texts in Part II of this book.

The first section of this chapter consists of an analysis of the five basic groups of men into which the 345 entries of the eleventh and twelfth $tabaq\bar{a}t$ of al-Dhahabī's $Siyar\ a'l\bar{a}m\ al-nubal\bar{a}'$ fall and devotes special attention to the topics of literary production and individual contributions to $had\bar{a}th$ transmission.² The first group consists of the political leaders, poets, and masters of $belle\ lettres\ (udab\bar{a}')$ of this generation, while the second one consists of theologians who specialized in dialectics $(kal\bar{a}m)$. The third category of men is a group of virtuoso ascetics $(zuhh\bar{a}d)$ and an early mystic $(s\bar{u}f\bar{t})$, most of whom, like the members of the previous two groups, played little role in $had\bar{u}th$ transmission. The sixteen judges $(q\bar{a}d\bar{t}s)$ and thirty-six jurists $(fuqah\bar{a}')$ and $muf\bar{u}s$ comprise the fourth group and are of particular importance for this study because their biographical notices shed light on the

¹⁵⁷ These books would have included much that was not hadīth, such as āthār and historical akhbār, but they are being called hadīth books merely due to the presence of some Prophetic hadīth within their pages.

See above, III.4.

² Note that these five groups are not mutually exclusive, and that several scholars are members of two or even three of them.

of al-Shāfi'ī's life with sublime powers and immediate global influence. The sources I have engaged, which are all significant works located within the Sunnī tradition of hadīth scholarship, tell a radically different story, namely that the first multi-topic hadīth books (tasnīf or musannaf)¹⁵⁷ were compiled between the deaths of al-Zuhrī and al-Awzā'ī (c. 120-150/738-767) and that the rise of hadīth criticism at the level of the individual hadīth (Sufyān al-Thawrī) and occasionally at the level of transmitter (Shu'ba) was simultaneous with this development. The basic technical term for reliablible, thiga, appears in the opinions of Mālik and Ibn 'Uyayna, whereas the term for rejection, taraka, was used by their pupils. The last major term to enter circulation appears to be the one for unreliable transmitters, namely datīf, since it is only found in the third person, usually in the mouths of Yahyā l-Qattan (d. 198/813), Ibn Mahdī (d. 198/814), or their contemporaries. Despite the small sample of critical reports upon which this argument is based, the combination of the high degree of consensus as to the identities of the nine primary critics across the centuries of the ten primary sources analyzed in this chapter with the actual critical reports preserved in books like the Taqdima and al-Du'afa' al-saghīr leaves us with a plausible narrative of the first two generations of master hadith critics who set the stage for the major works of Ibn Sa'd (d. 230/845), Ibn Ma'īn (d. 233/848), and Ibn Hanbal (d. 241/855). We can only hope that future research will uncover more examples of the critical opinions of these early scholars, the majority of which seem to have been either forgotten or overshadowed by the accomplishments of the critics of the third/ninth century, in order to bury all doubts as to the authenticity of the periodization that I have proposed in this chapter.

CHAPTER FIVE

THE GENERATION OF IBN SA'D, IBN MA'ĪN, AND IBN ḤANBAL: A PROSOPOGRAPHICAL STUDY

V.l

We have arrived at the generation in which the three scholars whose texts I shall examine in the remaining chapters of this book flourished. This generation corresponds closely with the eighth tabaqa of the Tadhkirat al-huffāz which I described briefly at the beginning of the third phase of hadīth scholarship in the third chapter. It also follows immediately after the first generation of hadīth critics whose contributions to the crafts of hadīth criticism and hadīth-transmitter criticism I have just assessed in the previous chapter of this study. The goal of this chapter is to provide a panoramic view of the religious and intellectual milieu of the first half of the third/ninth century during which Ibn Sa'd, Ibn Ma'īn and Ibn Ḥanbal studied and taught prior to a rigorous analysis of their texts in Part II of this book.

The first section of this chapter consists of an analysis of the five basic groups of men into which the 345 entries of the eleventh and twelfth $tabaq\bar{a}t$ of al-Dhahabī's $Siyar\ a'l\bar{a}m\ al-nubal\bar{a}'$ fall and devotes special attention to the topics of literary production and individual contributions to $had\bar{a}th$ transmission.² The first group consists of the political leaders, poets, and masters of $belle\ lettres\ (udab\bar{a}')$ of this generation, while the second one consists of theologians who specialized in dialectics $(kal\bar{a}m)$. The third category of men is a group of virtuoso ascetics $(zuhh\bar{a}d)$ and an early mystic $(s\bar{u}f\bar{t})$, most of whom, like the members of the previous two groups, played little role in $had\bar{u}th$ transmission. The sixteen judges $(q\bar{a}d\bar{u}s)$ and thirty-six jurists $(fuqah\bar{a}')$ and $muf\bar{u}s$ comprise the fourth group and are of particular importance for this study because their biographical notices shed light on the

¹⁵⁷ These books would have included much that was not hadīth, such as āthār and historical akhbār, but they are being called hadīth books merely due to the presence of some Prophetic hadīth within their pages.

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² Note that these five groups are not mutually exclusive, and that several scholars are members of two or even three of them.

poorly understood relationship between the disciplines of jurisprudence (figh) and hadith scholarship during this period prior to the crystallization of the Sunnī schools of law (madhāhib).3 The final group of men, the hadīth scholars, is, ironically perhaps, the hardest group to pinpoint, and our analysis focuses primarily upon the scholars whom al-Dhahabī evaluates as hujja or Shaykh al-Islām, or whose hadīth is present in all six of the canonical Sunnī books, or who compiled hadīth books on their own. This section concludes with a synthesis of the myriad names extracted from al-Dhahabi's Siyar into a coherent portrait of the centers of hadīth scholarship on the eve of the compilation of the unparalleled Sahīhs of al-Bukhārī and Muslim.

The second section of this chapter provides a brief reexamination of a historical event of this period that has generated some attention in the modern secondary literature, namely the mihna (inquisition) inaugurated during the last four months of al-Ma'mūn's reign and executed until the early years of al-Mutawakkil. This episode is accorded major significance by Western scholars such as Ira Lapidus, Martin Hinds, and John Nawas, several of whose opinions display an uncamouflaged contempt for the pious religious scholars whose lives were disrupted for little obvious benefit to the caliphate. This event has been approached almost exclusively through the lens of the Muslim chroniclers in general, and al-Tabarī in particular, and has been described by Lapidus, Hinds, and Nawas as a watershed event in the relationship between the religious scholars and the caliphate. A more subtle and convincing analysis has been put forth recently by Muhammad Qasim Zaman, but he too devotes the bulk of his study to caliphal policies and relies primarily upon the books of the famous Muslim historians instead of the works of hadīth literature. My investigation departs from this scholarship by means of its fresh focus upon of the impact of the mihna on the fields of hadīth compilation and criticism, and we demonstrate the negligible effect that an 'incorrect' response to the nature of the Qur'an had upon individual hadīth transmitters' reputations in the eyes of their illustrious pupils like al-Bukhārī and Muslim.

The final section of this chapter provides biographical sketches for Ibn Sa'd, Ibn Ma'īn, and Ibn Hanbal, the three scholars whose critical hadīth works are subjected to rigorous analyses in the remaining chapters of this book. I also include a sketch of each of the primary transmitters of the texts we are studying: Ibn Fahm and al-Hārith b. Abī Usāma for Ibn Sa'd's al-Ṭabaqāt al-kabīr, 'Abbās al-Dūrī for Ibn Ma'īn's Tārīkh, and Ibn Ḥanbal's son, 'Abdullāh, who is the sole transmitter of the Musnad and many of his critical opinions ('ilal). This section serves as a bridge between the preliminary studies of hadīth transmission and criticism that occupied the preceding three chapters to the analyses of critical texts that played a fundamental role in the emergence of Sunnī Islam that occupy the remainder of this study.

V.2 A Prosopographical panorama of the first half of the third/ninth century

V.2.1

The primary source for this broad introduction to third/ninth century Islamicate civilization is the Siyar a'lām al-nubalā' of our Mamlūkera guide al-Dhahabī that I discussed above in the first chapter. I have constructed a database of the 345 men4 found in the eleventh and twelfth tabaqāt of the Siyar, and all but eleven of the men whose death dates were recorded passed away between the years 211-250/ 826-864.5 It should come as no surprise that al-Dhahabī's collection

³ Melchert dates the foundation of the Hanafi madhlab to Abū l-Hasan al-Karkhī (d. 340/952), the Shāfi'ī one to Ibn Surayi (d. 306/918), and the Ḥanbalī to al-Khallal (d. 311/923); The Formation of the Sunni Schools of Law, 125, 87-92, and 147-55, respectively. The Mālikī school is somewhat harder to date; it appears to have emerged quite early in al-Andalus and Qayrawan, but ultimately failed in Baghdad; *ibid.*, 155-77.

⁴ There are actually 343 men and two royal women, Zaynab bint al-Amīr Sulaymān and Zubayda, the famous wife of Hārūn al-Rashīd (Siyar, X, 238 and 241) mentioned in the eleventh and twelfth tabagat of the Siyar, for the sake of convenience, I shall refer to this aggregate as "345 men" when necessary in the remainder of this chapter. Note also that one man, Ahmad b. 'Āṣim al-Anṭākī, has two entries, one under his nisba and one under his first name (ism); ibid., XI, 409 and X, 487, respectively.

These entries are located in Syar, X, 209 through XI, 515. Al-Dhahabī neglects to mention a death date in only twenty-seven of the 345 entries. Note that these two tahaqat will be considered as one generation for this study because it is quite clear that all of these men were contemporaries and that few of the twelfth tabaga scholars transmitted material from members of the eleventh one. A few prominent members of the thirteenth tabaga who lived during the first half of the third/ninth century, such as al-Jāhiz, will be considered in the appropriate sections that follow.

of 'notables' is heavily weighted towards hadīth scholars in light of our discussion of his interests and approach to Islam in the second chapter of this study. However, the Siyar, in contrast to Tadhkirat alhuffaz, contains numerous biographies of men who had either a lukewarm or nonexistent role in the venture of hadīth transmission and thus is an ideal work for the panoramic view of Islamic cultural life during the time of Ibn Sa'd, Ibn Ma'īn, and Ibn Hanbal.

V.2.2 Caliphs, Governors, Poets, and Men of Letters

Only seven of the 345 entries of the eleventh and twelfth tabagāt of al-Dhahabī's Siyar a'lām al-nubalā' are members of the royal 'Abbāsid household. The three caliphs of the age, al-Ma'mūn, al-Mu'tasim, and al-Wathiq are presented in succession in the Siyar and their relatively brief entries contain little more than outlines of major events, such as natural disasters and battles, that occurred during each of their respective reigns. The bulk of the information about the mihna, in which these rulers played a major role, is to be found in the lengthy entry devoted to Ibn Hanbal, although the biography of al-Wathig does include the famous story of an anonymous Shaykh who convinced him of the error of the doctrine of the created Qur'an by means of rather simple arguments. Manşūr b. al-Mahdī (d. 236/ 850-1), a brother of Hārūn al-Rashīd, receives a notice presumably for his role as governor in Basra during his brother's caliphate and governor of Damascus during the brief reign of al-Amīn (193-8/

809-13).8 Finally, the talented singer and poet Ibrāhīm b. al-Mahdī (d. 224/839) also thrived during this period, and he appears to have dedicated his time to his artistic endeavors after al-Ma'mun pardoned him for his brief bid for the caliphate in 202/817.9 The two final 'Abbāsids, Zaynab (d. after 210/825) and Zubayda (d. 216/831), are the only women included in this generation and al-Dhahabī tells us precious little about their lives.10

Only four governors of this period, in addition to the two sons of al-Mahdī mentioned in the previous paragraph, impressed al-Dhahabī enough to warrant inclusion in Siyar a'lām al-nubalā'. Ishāq b. Ibrāhīm (d. 235/849-50) ruled Baghdad for thirty years and received a rather unsavory image due to his abuse of Ibn Hanbal and other scholars during the mihna.11 Abū Dulaf al-Qāsim (d. 225/840) receives praise for his bravery, generosity and poetry during his competent administration of Damascus for al-Mu^ctaṣim. ¹² Asad b. al-Furāt (d. 213/828) was a unique combination of jurist, warrior, and governor under the Aghlabid rulers of Ifriqiyya and achieved fame for his leadership role in the difficult conquest of Sicily.¹³ Finally, the greatest non-caliphal patron of high culture of the age was 'Abdullāh b. Tāhir (d. 230/845), who was granted Egypt and Ifriqiyya by al-Ma'mūn and later proved fundamental in the establishment of Nishapur as a center of Islamicate civilization.14

⁶ Siyar, X, 272-89 (al-Ma'mūn); 290-305 (al-Mu'taṣim); 306-14 (al-Wāthiq). Siyar, X, 308-9. The gist of the story is the following: The shaykh asks the caliph if the Messenger of God, Abū Bakr, 'Umar, and the caliphs knew that the Qur'an was created or not. Al-Wathiq takes the bait and says "They did not know this," to which the clever shaykh replies "Praise be to God! [There is] something that they did not know but that you do!" Al-Wāthiq asks for a second chance and the shaykh repeats the intial question. This time al-Wathiq says "Yes, the Prophet knew that the Qur'an was created," to which the shaykh replies "He knew this, but he did not teach it to the people?" Al-Wathiq says "yes," at which point the shaykh inquires "And was this sufficient for him (i.e. not to teach this knowledge)?" Al-Wäthig replies in the affirmative, allowing the shaykh to spring the final trap and say "Is not that which is sufficient for you that which is sufficient for the Prophet and the caliphs who followed him?" Al-Wāthiq left the company of the shaykh at this time, entered the hall of his courtiers, repeated the shaykh's argument and ordered the cessation of milina. Al-Dhahabī notes at the end of this anecdote with his characteristic candor that "there are unknown transmitters in the isnād of this story, and God only knows whether it is sound."

⁸ Siyar, XI, 449-50. Al-Dhahabī reports that the people of Damascus asked him to seek the caliphate, but that he in fact declined their request.

⁹ Siyar, X, 557-61.

Zaynab, a cousin of the caliph al-Manṣūr, is remembered primarily for her longevity, as she was a child when the 'Abbāsids were in Ḥumayma prior to the revolution and lived through the reign of al-Ma'mūn, who is reported to have honored her greatly (kāna yukrimuhā wa yujilluhā); Siyar, X, 238. Al-Dhahabī's brief notice for Zubayda, daughter of al-Mansur and wife of Hārun, merely describes her wealth, patronage of the pilgrimage, the presence of a hundred slave girls in her palace that had memorized the Qur'an, and an anecdote in which she praises al-Ma'mūn despite the fact that one of his generals killed her son al-Amīn in the civil war; ibid., X, 241.

Siyar, XI, 171. Al-Dhahabī remarks that his son Muhammad succeeded him in this post.

¹² Siyar, X, 563-4.

¹³ Siyar, X, 225-8. His controversial role as a jurist will be discussed below; note that he is reported to have transmitted a version of the Muwatta' that is mentioned neither by Sezgin nor Yasin Dutton; see GAS, I, 459-60 and The Origins of Islamic Law, 23-4.

Siyar, X, 684-5. Two of the most prominent scholars to receive his patronage were the philologist Abū 'Ubayd al-Qāsim b. al-Sallām, whom we shall hear about

Al-Dhahabī identifies nine Arabic poets of the first half of the third/ninth century in the Siyar. These include the 'Abbāsid prince Ibrāhīm b. Mahdī and the governor Abū Dulaf whom we just mentioned, and the notorious prosecutor of the mihna, Ahmad b. Abī Duwād (d. 240/854-5). 15 Abū l-Yanbaghī (no date) specialized in panegvrics and satire at the courts of al-Mansur to al-Mu'tasim, 16 Dīk al-Jinn (d. 235-6/849-51) was a Shī'ī poet in Ḥimṣ who gained notoriety for the murder of his former slave wife out of jealousy, 17 and Muhmmad b. 'Ubayd al-Allāh al-'Utbī (d. 228/843) excelled in history, verse, and drinking. 18 Mahmūd al-Warrāq (no date) is of particular interest because he is the only one of these nine men reported to have composed poems of a religious nature (fi l-mawā'iz), although al-Dhahabī does not record any examples of this kind of verse in his entry.¹⁹ Finally, Sa'īd b. 'Ufayr (d. 226/841) excelled in the disciplines of history, genealogy, and even hadith in addition to poetry to such a degree that Ibn Ma'in stated "There are three wonders in Egypt: the Nile, the pyramids, and Sa'īd b. 'Ufayr!"20

Two poets of this period tower above their contemporaries and both of them enjoyed the munificent patronage of the highest echelons of the 'Abbasid court. The founding father of Arabic music, poet, and self-appointed jurist of the courts from Hārūn al-Rashīd to al-Wāthiq was Ishāq b. Ibrāhīm al-Mawsilī (d. 235/850).21 Al-

shortly, and the hadīth scholar Ishāq b. Rāhawayh, whom we mentioned above in the first generation of the third phase of hadith scholarship.

Dhahabī neglects to mention the major incident of jealousy and rivalry between Ishāq and the 'Abbāsid prince Ibrāhīm b. al-Mahdī (who had a rather high opinion of his own talents) that had to be mitigated by al-Rashīd's stern efforts,22 but does include a truncated version of an insightful report of Ishaq's daily schedule:

I spent a part of my life going to Hushaym23 or another hadith scholar each morning prior to sunrise, and then to al-Kisā'ī or al-Farrā' or Ibn Ghazāla in order to read a juz'24 of the Qur'ān. I would then proceed to Abū Manṣūr Zalzal and he would teach me two or three melodies [on the 'ūd (lute)], and then I would learn a song or two (sawt) from 'Ātika bint Shahda. Then I would proceed to al-Asma'ī and Abū Ubayda and benefit greatly from their knowledge. [Then I would go to my father and tell him what I had done and whom I had seen that day and have dinner with him.]25 Then I would attend the evening session (majlis) of [the caliph Hārūn] al-Rashīd.26

Although Ishāq al-Mawṣilī is reported to have been embarrassed by his fame as a singer, the anecdote that al-Ma'mūn "would have made him a qādī" had he not been such a well known singer indicates where his primary talents lay.27 He also appears to have been both an avid book collector and compiler, as al-Aṣmāʿī was amazed by the sixteen trunks of books that he hauled with Hārūn al-Rashīd to the summer palace at Raqqa, and Yāqūt mentions no fewer than thirty-two of his own works.28

The most extraordinary poet of the age was the Christian convert to Islam, Abū Tammām Ḥabīb b. Aws (d. 231/845 or 228/843).29

¹⁵ Siyar, XI, 169-71. Al-Dhahabī includes several verses attributed to him that he would recite in his post-prayer supplications, a practice not commonly associated with the piety-minded 'ulamā'.

¹⁶ Siyar, X, 615-6. The editors of the Siyar were unable to find this poet in any of the biographical sources that have survived: al-Dhahabī obtained his information from one of the works of 'Abd al-Jabbar b, 'Imran al-Marzubani (d. 384/994).

¹⁷ Siyar, XI, 163-4; E12, II, 275-6. His real name was 'Abd al-Salām b. Raghbān. 18 Sivar, XI, 96; E12, X, 945-6. Sezgin has identified numerous fragments of his works in al-Mas adi's Muruj al-dhahab; GAS, I, 372.

¹⁹ Siyar, XI, 461-2. Ten verses from three poems about youth and aging attributed to Mahmud al-Warraq can be found in al-Jahiz, al-Bayan wa l-tabyin, III (Beirut: Dar al-Khavr, n.d.), 197-8.

²⁰ Siyar, XI, 583-6. Sa'īd b. Kathīr b. 'Ufayr is the only poet in this generation of the Siyar to be found in any of the six canonical Sunnī hadīth books; his transmissions can be found in the books of al-Bukhārī, Muslim, and al-Nasā'ī. Sezgin remarks that he is the first scholar to compose a history of al-Andalus which, along with his other works, is now lost; GAS, I, 361. Al-Bukhārī included 43 hadīth from Sa'īd in his Sahīh, 33 of which came from al-Layth b. Sa'd; Sezgin, Buhârî'nin Kaynaklari, 289 (isnād #245).

²¹ Siyar, XI, 118-21; El2, IV, 110-11. Al-Dhahabī's entry is a succinct para-

phrase of Yāqūt al-Ḥamawī's (d. 626/1229) lengthy entry and hardly does justice to this most influential courtier; Yāqūt, Mu'jam al-udabā', II (Beirut: Dār al-Kutub al-'Ilmiyya, 1991), 129-56. The E12 article draws primarily on the long entry found in Abū l-Faraj al-Isbahānī's Kītāb al-aghānī, V (Cairo, 1963), 153-258.

²² Musam al-udabā', II, 133-5.

²³ Note that this is one of the first hadīth scholars with whom Ibn Ḥanbal is reported to have spent a significant amount of time while a student.

²⁴ This expression can either mean "a part of the Qur'ān" in a general sense, or a "thirtieth of the Qur'an" in a technical one.

²⁵ This sentence is found only in Mu'jam al-udabā', II, 131.

²⁶ Siyar, 119-20. Note that the version in Mu'jam al-udabā', II, 130-1 reports that Ishāq read a juz' of the Qur'ān to both al-Kisā'ī and al-Farrā', but does not mention Ibn Ghazāla; likewise, it also indicates that he would recite poetry (unāshiduhu) to al-Asma'ī and discuss it (udhākiruhu) with Abū 'Ubayda.

²⁷ Siyar, XI, 120; Mu'jam al-udabā', II, 130.

²⁸ Siyar, XI, 120; Mujam al-udabā', II, 155. None of these works appears to have survived; GAS, I, 371.

²⁹ Siyar, XI, 63-9.

Abū Tammām's fame first emerged from his panegyrics to al-Mu'tasim and his courtiers and may have peaked with his most famous qasīda in honor of the victory at Amorium whose opening lines are:

The sword is more veracious than the book, Its cutting edge splits earnestness From sport. The white of the blade, not the black of the page, Its broadsides clarify uncertainty And doubt. Knowledge lies in the bright spears gleaming Between two armies, not in the seven Gleaming stars.30

Among the verses selected by al-Dhahabī in the Siyar are the following:

Were sustenance attained only by those with intelligence The beasts would then perish out of their ignorance! Just as east and west cannot join with facility, Neither can a man who clings to wealth be of nobility.³¹

Abū Tammām's 'modern' style of poetry has never ceased from its inception to elicit strong reactions from literary critics, Muslim and Western alike, and a thorough discussion of this topic is far beyond the scope of this book.32

The final group of scholars to whom we shall turn in this section is that of the masters of adab, or belle lettres.33 Hajib b. al-Walīd (d. 228/843) and Muhammad b. Hātim al-Zammī (d. 246/861) are

30 Suzanne Pickney Stetkevych, Abū Tammām and the Poetics of the Abbāsid Age (Leiden: Brill, 1991), 187. Al-Dhahabī includes the first and third of these lines in his entry on al-Mu^etasim; Siyar, X, 303. The Arabic is: al-sayfu asdagu anbā'an mina l-kutubī/fī haddihi l-haddu bayna l-nddi wa l-la'ibī; bīdu l-safā'ihi lā sūdu l-sahā'ifi fī/ mutunihinna jila'u l-shakki wa l-riyabi; wa l-ilmu fi shuhubi l-armahi lami'atan/bayn l-khamīsayni lā fī l-sab'ati l-shuhubī; Stetkevych, Abū Tammām, 375.

31 wa law kānāli l-arzāgu turrā 'alā l-hijā/halakna idhan min jahlihinna l-bahā'imu; wa lam yajtami' sharqun wa gharbun li-qāsidin/wa lā t-majdu fī kaffi-mri'in wa l-darāhimu; Siyar, XI, 66. The verses come from a gasida in praise of Ibn Abi Duwad in the Dīwan of Abu Tammām; the translation is mine.

32 A historical outline of these opinions can be found in the article "Abū Tammām"

by Helmut Ritter in the EI2, I, 153-55.

identified as private tutors (mu'addib) and they both have hadīth transmissions in at least one of the six canonical Sunnī books.34 Ibn al-Zayyāt (d. 233/848), the famous wazīr of al-Mu'taṣim and al-Wāthiq whose feud with Ibn Abī Duwād led to his fall from favor under al-Mutawakkil, was reknowned for his literary talents.35 'Alī b. 'Aththām (d. 228/843) is a particularly interesting case of a jurist-adīb who emigrated from Kufa to Nishapur and achieved prominence for his refusal to join Ibn Tāhir's court.36 Al-Hākim al-Naysābūrī described this pious scholar as one who "was reluctant to teach hadīth and from whom students took many stories (hikāyāt), tales of asceticism, exegesis, and hadīth-transmitter criticism."37 Muhammad b. Sallām al-Jumahī (d. 231/846) came to Baghdad in 222/837 and is credited with one of the earliest books of the tabaqat genre which has survived to this day.38 Finally, the Basran 'Alī b. Muhammad al-Madā'inī (d. 224/839) befriended Ishāq al-Mawsilī in Baghdad and composed hundreds of presumably short works of history and genealogy all of which appear to have been lost.39

Siyar, XI, 172-3.

37 lā yuḥaddithu illā bi-l-juhdi wa aktharu mā ukhidha 'anhu al-hikavātu wa l-zuhdivātu wa l-tafsīru, wa l-jarhu wa l-tafdīlu; Siyar, X, 570.

38 Siyar, X, 651-2. An alternative death date is 231/846. His book Tabagāt alshu'arā is divided into three sections: pre-Islamic poets (ten tabaqāt plus elegists), poets of the Arab towns, and the Islamic poets (ten tabagāt); Tabagāt al-shu'arā' (Beirut: Dār al-Kutub al-Ilmiyya, 1988).

³³ Five additional scholars of prominence in the eleventh and twelfth tabagāt of the Siyar who do not fit into any of these categories are Muhammad b. Ziyād Ibn al-A'rābī (d. 231/846), Abū Mūsā Qālūn (d. 220/835), 'Abd al-Mālik b. Hishām (d. 218/833), Abū 'Umar al-Jarmī (d. 225/840), and Abū l-Rabī' al-Zahrānī (d. 234/ 848-9). Ibn al-A'rābī was a pupil of al-Kisā'ī and educated the sixteenth tabaga litterateur Tha'lab (d. 291/904) for nineteen years, while Oālūn was skilled in gram-

mar in addition to his fame as a disciple of the Our'an-reciter Nafi'. Ibn Hisham's abridgement of Ibn Ishāq's al-Sīrat al-nabawiyya has remained one of the most popular texts in Islamic civilization to this day. Al-Jarmī is considered to have had the best understanding of Sībawayhi's Kītāb and al-Zahrānī composed a well-known work of variant readings of the Qur'an; Siyar, X, 687-8, 326-7, 428-9, 561-3, 676-8, respectively.

³⁴ Siyar, XI, 61-2 (Ḥājib); XI, 452-3 (Muḥammad). The former has hadīth in Muslim's Sahīh; the latter has material in the books of al-Tirmidhī and al-Nasā'ī. Hājib lived in Baghdad and Muhammad al-Zammī served at the court in Sāmarrā'.

³⁶ Siyar, X, 569-71. 'Alī's hadīth can be found in Muslim's Saḥīḥ and al-Dhahabī identified him as a Shaykh al-Islām and example (qudwa); it appears that al-Dhahabī's usage of the term Shaykh al-Islām is more liberal in the Siyar than the Tadhkira. for 'Alī b. 'Aththam does not even earn an entry in the latter work.

³⁹ Siyar, X, 400-2. Al-Dhahabī mentions sixteen titles and remarks that the entire list would fill five and a half pages. Yāqūt divides 'Alī's vast corpus into the categories of 1) reports of the life of the Prophet, 2) reports of the Quraysh, 3) reports of the marriages of the noble tribesmen and reports of women, 4) reports of the caliphs, 5) reports of battles (ahdāth), 6) reports of the conquests, 7) reports of the Bedouins, and 8) reports of the poets; Mu'jam al-udabā', IV, 223-227. For surviving fragments of his works in later sources, see GAS, I, 314-5.

Jāḥiz's most insightful observation regarding $had\bar{\imath}th$ scholars that is worth quoting in full:⁴⁶

Our experience is that a person studies [hadīth] for nearly fifty years, concerns himself with exegesis of the Koran and lives among religious scholars, without being counted among the fuqahā' or being able to obtain the office of judge. This he can only achieve if he studies the works of Abū Ḥanīfa and the like and learns by heart the practical legal formulae (shurūt); all this can be done in one or two years. In only a very short time such a person will be appointed as judge over a town or even a whole province.

A suggestive anecdote that testifies to al-Jāḥiz's fundamental role in the development of Islamic civilization is the fact that the strict critic al-Dhahabī, no friend of the Muʿtazila, offers a supplication for divine forgiveness on his behalf at the end of his entry in the *Siyar*. Whether the rationally guided al-Jāḥiz would have really desired this anti-intellectual pupil of Ibn Taymiyya to request divine forgiveness on his behalf, is, of course, an altogether different question.

It should be clear from this brief survey of extra-religious cultural figures why Marshall Hodgson identified this age as the 'golden age' of Arabic adab in the Venture of Islam. The munificence of the 'Abbāsid courts in Baghdad and Sāmarrā', and Ibn Ṭāhir's patronage in Nishapur fostered a climate of creativity and brilliance in the fields of poetry, music, belle lettres, history, and philology. Abū Tammām, Ishāq al-Mawsilī, Abū l-Hasan b. al-Madā'inī, Abū 'Ubayd, and al-Jāhiz set standards of excellence in their respective fields that were rarely surpassed by their successors. The textual legacy of the period includes works by these five luminaries as well as the Tabagāt fuhūl al-shu'arā' of al-Jumahī and the lost histories of Sa'īd b. 'Ufayr, and the fact that so much of it has survived to this day indicates the value Muslims have accorded it over the centuries. Finally, it is interesting to note that a few of these men, such as Abū 'Ubayd, Sa'īd b. 'Ufayr, 'Alī b. 'Aththām, Hājib b. al-Walīd, and Muhammad b. Hātim contributed to the vast enterprise of hadīth compilation that was rapidly gathering momentum during this period of literary florescence.

The last master adīb must not be forgotton, 'Amr b. Baḥr al-Jāḥiẓ (d. 255/868), landed in the thirteenth tabaqa of the Siyar due to his longevity, but flourished during the period under discussion. ⁴⁵ A master stylist of Arabic prose, compiler, and Mu'tazilī theologian, al-Jāḥiẓ's influence and achievements can hardly be reduced to a single paragraph with any degree of justice. Goldziher cited long ago al-

The most significant member of this class of scholars for this study is Abū 'Ubayd al-Oāsim b. Sallām (d. 224/839). A tutor in the service of the family of the general Harthama b. A'yān, Abū 'Ubayd moved to Ibn Tāhir's court in Nishapur where he composed several of his most famous works. These compositions include the legal work Kītāb al-amwāl, 40 Fadā'il al-Qur'ān, and his two major lexicons of exotic Arabic words, Gharīb al-muṣannaf and Gharīb al-hadīth. 41 Al-Dhahabī states that Gharīb al-musannaf was composed over a forty year period, that the first scholar to hear this book was Abū 'Ubayd's longtime friend Yahyā b. Ma'īn, and that Abū 'Ubayd spent a third of the night in prayer, a third asleep, and a third composing books. 42 Abū 'Ubavd served as a gādī for eighteen years in Tarsus and boasted that he convinced the great hadīth critic Yahyā b. Sa'īd al-Qattān to abandon his Murji'ī practice of recognizing the legitimacy of only the first two caliphs, Abū Bakr and 'Umar. 43 Finally, al-Hākim al-Navsābūrī's observation that Abū 'Ubayd was intimate with the hadīth scholars of his day while the slightly later Ibn Qutayba (d. 276/889) failed to earn their respect indicates a qualitative difference between these two jurist-adībs, both of whom composed books of relevance for hadīth studies.44

⁴⁰ For Abū 'Ubayd's Kītāb al-amwāl see the excellent study by Andreas Görke, Das Kītāb al-Amwāl des Abū 'Ubaid al-Qāsim b. Sallām. Entstehung und Werküberlieferung, PhD thesis, Hamburg 2000. (Thanks to the anonymous reviewer for this reference.)

⁴¹ All four of these works have been published. Note also his theological work Kitāb al-īmān which has been studied by Wilferd Madelung in "Early Sunnī Doctrine Concerning Faith as Reflected in the Kītāb al-īmān of Abū 'Ubaid al-Qāsim b. Sallām (d. 224/839)," Studia Islamica 32 (1970), 233–54.

⁺² Siyar, X, 496-9.

⁴³ Siyar, X, 498 and 501.

⁺⁺ Ibn Qutayba has received a thorough study by Gérard Lecomte, a summary of which can be found in his entry "Ibn Kutayba" in the El2. Although Ibn Qutayba sought to defend his contemporary hadīth scholars against the attacks of the Mu'tazila, there does not appear to have been much appreciation on the part of the hadīth scholars for his labors; see below, note 208.

⁴⁵ Siyar, XI, 526-30.

Muslim Studies, II, 215-6. The source of this quote is al-Jāḥiz's Kītāb al-ḥayawān.

V.2.3 Mu'tazila and other theologians

The period under discussion is perhaps most renowned for the speculative dexterity of numerous independent-minded theologians lumped under the name Mu'tazila. Most of these scholars hailed from Basra and found a welcome reception at the 'Abbāsid court under the protection of Yahyā l-Barmakī as early as the period of Hārūn al-Rashīd. 47 The hard labors of Richard Frank, Wilferd Madelung, Hans Daiber, and Josef van Ess over the past several decades have clarified the positions of major thinkers of this period, such as Abū l-Hudhayl al-'Allaf, Abū Ishaq al-Nazzām, Mu'ammar b. 'Abbad, and Ja'far b. Harb, whose numerous books survive for the most part only in fragments of later theological works.⁴⁸ It is critically important to realize that the Mu'tazila of this period were unified merely in their methodology and that the two classical schools of the Mu'tazila, the Basran and Baghdādī, did not mature until the period after the one under consideration. 49

Despite al-Dhahabī's manifest aversion to all speculative theology, Mu'tazilī or Ash'arī, he felt obliged to include a ghetto of nineteen theologians in Siyar a'lām al-nubalā' if only because the entire ordeal of the mihna makes little sense without their existence. 50 He offers very little in the way of explanation of their beliefs, and the following humorous anecdote that he gleaned from the philologist al-Mubarrad (d. 285/898) serves as his strongest suggestion as to why the entire Mu'tazili project failed to appeal to either the masses or the hadīth scholars:

A man said to Hishām al-Fuwāţī "How many years do you number?"51 Hishām replied "From one to over a thousand." The man said "I did not mean that. How much age (sinn) do you have?" Hishām replied "I have thirty-two teeth (sinn)." The man said "How many years do you have?" Hishām replied "None, they all belong to God." The man asked "So what is your age?" Hishām replied "Great ('azm)."

The man asked "So you are the son of how many?" Hishām replied "Son of a mother and father!" The man said "So how many years have come upon you?" Hishām replied "Had anything come upon me, it would have killed me!" The man said "Curse you! What should I say?" Hishām replied "How much of your life has passed?"52

A few general observations about individuals located in this short section of Siyar a'lām al-nubalā' will suffice for this chapter. First, Abū Mūsā l-Mardār (d. 226/841) and Abū Mujālid Ahmad b. al-Husayn (d. 268/862) are reported to have been ascetics in addition to being theologians, and the latter is also reported to have been a jurist.⁵³ Secondly, Abū Mūsā 'Īsā b. al-Haytham is one of the only men of this generation whom al-Dhahabī identifies as a Sūfī and can be seen as a precursor to the extraordinary Mu'tazilī-Sūfī al-Hārith al-Muhāsibī (d. 243/857) who flourished during this time as well.⁵⁴ Thirdly, the first steps towards a Sunnī speculative theology can be seen in the works of al-Husayn b. Muhammad al-Najjār (d. around 240/854) and Ibn Kullāb (d. 240/854), the latter of whom composed a book entitled Refutation of the Mu'tazila. 55 Finally, sixteen theologians are credited by al-Dhahabī with having composed books, virtually none of which have survived, and, perhaps less surprising, none of them transmitted a single hadīth that found its way into any of the six canonical Sunnī books.

V.2.4 Ascetics

The third category of notables in Siyar a'lām al-nubalā' transports us from the legendary 'Abbasid palaces associated with the poets, udaba', and theologians of the previous sections to the humble houses of renunciation and pious supplication. Eighteen men are identified explicitly by al-Dhahabī in the eleventh and twelfth tabaqāt of Siyar a'lām al-nubalā' as either ascetics (zāhid) or specialists in asceticism

⁴⁷ See Josef van Ess, "Dirar b. 'Amr," Supplement, E12, 225 for a description of the circle of the Barmakids that included Dirar, the Shī'ī Hishām b. al-Hakam, the Ibādī 'Abdullāh b. Yazīd, and the Zaydī Sulaymān b. Jarīr.

⁴⁸ These four men all receive brief notices in the Siyar, X, 541-50.

See the excellent El2 article by D. Gimaret "Mu'tazila."

⁵⁰ Sivar, X, 541-56.

⁵¹ Each of the following questions is a commonly accepted method of asking "How old are you?" in Arabic; the anecdote only works with a literal translation of the questions.

⁵² The correct question is kam madā min 'umrika? Siyar, X, 547.

⁵³ Siyar, X, 548 and 553. A third particularly pious Mu'tazilī of this period is Ja'far b. Harb (d. 236/850), who left the sessions of al-Wathig and refused to pray behind the caliph, although the reason for this is not explained by al-Dhahabī; Siyar, X, 549-50.

⁵⁴ Abū Mūsā's reputation was tarnished by the fact that he was a teacher of the notorious heretic (mulhid) Ibn al-Rawandī; Siyar, X, 552. The Baghdādī al-Hārith b. Asad al-Muḥāsibī is located in the thirteenth tabaqa of the Siyar and is identified as Shaykh al-Şūfiyya; Siyar, XII, 110-2.

⁵⁵ Siyar, XI, 144-6.

Table 5.1: Ascetics of the eleventh and twelfth tabagāt of the Siyar

	Name	Date	City	Ḥadīth legacya
l	Abū Mujālid Aḥmad b. al-Ḥusayn	268	Baghdad	Mu tazil $\bar{\imath}$ (none)
2	Abū Mūsā 'Īsā b. al-Ḥaytham	245	Baghdad	Mu'tazilī (none)
3	Abū Naṣr al-Tammār, 'Abd al-Malik b. 'Abd al-'Azīz	228	Nasā, Baghdad	M, N
4	Aḥmad b. Ḥarb b. Fayrūz	234	Nishapur, Mecca	None
5	Aḥmad b. Khidrawayh al-Balkhī	240	Balkh, Baghdad	None
6	al-Anṭākī, Aḥmad b. ʿĀṣim	c. 230	Damascus	None
7	al-Barjulānī, Muḥammad b. Ḥusayn	238	Baghdad	None
8	Bishr al-Ḥāfī b. al-Ḥārith	227	Baghdad	None
9	Fatḥ al-Mawṣilī Abū Naṣr b. Saʿīd	220	Mosul, Baghdad	None
10	al-Ghāzzī, Muḥammad b. 'Amr	c. 240	Egypt	None
11	al-Hakam b. Mūsā	232	Baghdad	M, N, Q
12	Hātim al-Aṣamm b. 'Anwān al-Balkhī	237	Balkh, Baghdad	None
13	al-Haytham b. Khārija	227	Baghdad	B (1), N
14	Ibrāhīm b. 'Abdullāh al-Harawī	244	Baghdad	T, Q
15	Khalaf b. Tamīm	213	Kufa, Maşşīşa	N, Q
16	al-Mardār Abū Mūsā 'Īsā b. Şābih	226	Basra	Mu'tazilī (none)
17	Mujāhid b. Mūsā al-Khwarazimī	244	Baghdad	M, D, T, N, Q
18	al-Ramādī, Ibrāhīm b. Bashshār	224	Basra	D, T

[&]quot;The following abbreviations are used: B: Bukhārī, M: Muslim, D: Abū Dāwūd, T: Tirmidhī, N: al-Nasā'ī, and Q: Ibn Māja al-Qazvīnī. The numbers in parentheses refer to the number of hadīth included by al-Bukhārī in his Saḥīh, according to Sezgin's Buhārī'nin Kaynaklari.

Two of the most influential ascetics of this period are Bishr al-Ḥāfī and Ḥātim al-Aṣamm, neither of whom transmitted ḥadīth. 56 Al-Dhahabī lauds Bishr al-Ḥāfī with the sobriquet Shaykh al-Islām, even though he concedes that Bishr did not really understand the Arabic language. 57 Despite his studies with the likes of Mālik b. Anas, Ḥammād b. Zayd, and al-Fuḍayl b. 'Iyāḍ, Bishr's excuse for not transmitting ḥadīth is telling: "I desire to transmit ḥadīth, but anything that I desire, I renounce!" Bishr appears to have adopted an extreme form of asceticism that included celibacy, something which led Ibn Ḥanbal to remark "Had Bishr married, he would have perfected himself." Among the aphorisms attributed to Bishr al-Ḥāfī found in al-Dhahabī's entry are the following:

He who loves the thighs of women will not achieve salvation.⁶⁰ You will not find the sweetness of worship until you put a barrier between you and desires.⁶¹

No one who loves the temporal world wishes for death; he who abstains from the temporal word longs for the meeting with his Protector.⁶² Do not act in order to be mentioned—conceal the good deeds just as you conceal the bad ones.⁶³

Al-Dhahabī includes an even greater number of wise sayings of the "Luqmān of this Community," Ḥātim al-Aṣamm, than of Bishr al-Ḥāfī in the Siyar.⁶⁴ After he remarks that al-Aṣamm did not transmit anything on the authority of the Prophet (musnadan), al-Dhahabī demonstrates his familiarity with al-Aṣamm's spiritual guidelines, including the following reports:

It was said to him: Upon what to you build your reliance upon God (tawakkul)? He replied: Upon four qualities: I know that only I will eat

^b Sezgin, Buhârî'nin Kaynaklari, 239 (#101).

⁵⁶ Bishr's dislike of *hadīth* and *hadīth* critics is explored in some detail in Michael Cooperson, *Classical Arabic Biography* (Cambridge, 2000), 168-70.

⁵⁷ Siyar, X, 472. The source of this criticism is not revealed by al-Dhahabī.

⁵⁸ anā ashtahī an uḥadditha wa idhā ishtahaytu shay'an, taraktuhu; Siyar, X, 470.

⁵⁹ law kāna Bishr tazawwaja la-tamma amruhu; Siyar, X, 472 and 474.

⁶⁰ lā yuflihu man alifa afkhādha l-nisā'; Siyar, X, 472. A similar version of this statement is attributed to Sufyān al-Thawrī: man aḥabba afkhādha l-nisā'i lam yuflih; ibid., VII, 258.

⁶¹ lā tajidu ḥalāwata l-ibādati ḥattā tajala baynaka wa bayna l-shahawāti saddan; Siyar, X, 473.

⁶² laysa ahadun yuhibbu l-dunyā illā lam yuhibba l-mawta wa man zahida fihā aḥabba liqā'a mawlāhu; Siyar, X, 476.

⁶³ lā ta'mal li-tudhkara, uktum al-hasanata kamā taktumu l-sayyi'a; Siyar, X, 476. For more information about the development of Bishr al-Ḥāfi's biography in the classical dictionaries, see Cooperson, Classical Arabic Biography, 154–87.

⁶⁴ Siyar, XI, 484-7.

my sustenance, and that calms my soul (nafs); I know that only I perform my action ('amal), and I am occupied with it; I know that my death will come suddenly, and I shall fall upon it; I know that I cannot escape from the eye of God, and so I am modest.⁶⁵

Whoever wakes up with four qualities will be well: Understanding (tafaqquh), then reliance upon God (tawakkul), then sincerity (ikhlāṣ), and then knowledge (maˈrifa).⁶⁶

The believer cannot be concealed from five things: God, the Decree $(al-qad\bar{a}^2)$, sustenance, death, and Satan.⁶⁷

Despite the fact that neither Bishr al-Hāfī nor Ḥātim al-Aṣamm transmitted hadīth, the ascetics as a whole are the first category of distinguished Muslims of this generation to have played a modest role in the venture of hadīth transmission and compilation. Seven of the eighteen ascetics transmitted materials found in at least one of the six canonical Sunnī books, and Mujāhid b. Mūsā al-Khwarazimī's hadīth can be found in all six of these books save the Saḥīḥ of al-Bukhārī. Ibrāhīm b. 'Abdullāh al-Harawī is accorded the honorific Shaykh al-Islām by al-Dhahabī and is reported to have been one of the most important pupils of Ibn Hanbal's first major teacher Hushaym b. Bashīr. 68 Abū l-Qāsim al-Baghawī (d. 317/929) arranged two juz' of hadīth from the ascetic Abū Nasr al-Tammār, 69 Khalaf b. Tamīm acquired roughly ten thousand hadīth from Sufyān al-Thawrī's pupils,70 and Ibrāhīm al-Ramādī's bizarre transmissions from his companion Ibn 'Uyayna led Ibn Hanbal to remark "It is as if the Sufyan from whom Ibrāhīm transmits reports is not Ibn 'Uyayna!"71 While it is clear from this survey that several ascetics did take an active interest in the transmission of hadīth, the majority of them expressed little

nn asbaha mustaqīman fi arba'in fa-huwa bi-khayrin: al-tafaqquh, thumma l-tawakkul, thumma l-ikhlās, thumma l-ma'rifa; Siyar, XI, 485.

67 al-mu'minu lā yaghību 'an khamsa: 'an Allāh wa l-qaḍā' wa l-rizq, wa l-mawt wa l-shaytān; Siyar, XI, 487.

Siyar, XI, 478. His hadīth are found in the books of al-Tirmidhī and Ibn Māja.
wa qad allafa l-Baghawī juz'ayn mimmā 'indahu 'an Abī Naṣr al-Tammār; Siyar, X,
574.

Siyar, X, 213. Ibn Ma'īn reports that Khalaf was sadūq, and Abū Ḥātim declared him to be thiga.

71 ka'anna Šufyān allādhī yarwī 'anhu Ibrahīm ibn Bashshār laysa bi-Ibn 'Uyayna; Siyar, X, 511. interest in the temporal universe of *isnād* analysis and textual compilation and preferred to teach timeless truths pertaining to the disciplining of the soul and preparation for the inevitable encounter with the Creator.

V.2.5 Judges, Jurists, and Muftis

The generation of Ibn Sa'd, Ibn Ma'īn, and Ibn Ḥanbal witnessed a number of legal scholars of a high caliber, several of whom laid the foundations for what would become three of the four schools of Sunnī law. It is somewhat perplexing that al-Dhahabī explicitly identifies only three of the sixteen judges (qādīs) as jurists,⁷² as one might expect that these professionals would require a degree of erudition in the discipline of jurisprudence to perform their jobs competently.⁷³ The fact that 58% (21) of the jurists transmitted hadīth found in the 'six books' while a mere 37.5% (6) of the judges did so indicates that the Muslim judges of this period were not the most expert legal minds, although there is too little evidence to venture any sweeping theory on this topic.⁷⁴

The following table provides an overview of the sixteen men whom al-Dhahabī identifies as judges during the first half of the third/ninth century:

Table 5.2: Judges of the eleventh and twelfth tabagāt of the Siyar

	Name	Date	City ^a	Ḥadīth legacy ^b
1	'Abdān 'Abdullāh b. 'Uthmān	221	Marw (Juzjān)	B (111), M, D,
2	'Abdullāh b. Sawwār	228	Basra	N
3	Abū Ḥassān al-Ziyādī	242	Baghdad	None
4	Abū Muṣʻab Aḥmad b. Abī Bakr al-Zuhrī	242	Medina	B (3), ^d M, D, T, N, Q

⁷⁴ This finding is consistent with al-Jāḥiz's observation cited above (p. 167) that judges did not need to study *hadāth* in order to obtain their jobs.

⁶⁵ qīla lahu 'alā mā banayta amraka fi l-tawakkul? qāla 'alā khiṣālin arba'a: 'alimtu anna rizqī lā ya'kuluhu ghayrī, fa-ṭma'annat nafsī, wa 'alimtu anna 'amalī lā ya'maluhu ghayrī, f-anā mashghūlun bihi wa 'alimtu anna l-mawta ya'ū baghtatan fa-anā ubādiruhu wa 'alimtu annī lā akhlū min 'āyni llāhi fa-anā mustahyin minhu; Siyar, XI, 485.

⁷² These men are Abū Muş'ab al-Zuhrī (d. 242/856), Bishr b, al-Walīd (d. 238/852-3), and 'Īsā b. Abān (d. 221/836).

⁷³ This figure is to be contrasted with the identification of nine of the twelve mufts as jurists. Is it a coincidence that all three non-jurist mufts—Muhammad b. Bakkār, Muhammad b. Wahb, and al-Murrī—were residents of Damascus?

Table 5.2. (cont.)

	Name	Date	City ^a	Ḥadīth legacy ^b
5	Abū 'Ubayd al-Qāsim b. Sallām	224	Nishapur (Tarsus)	None
6	Aḥmad b. Abī Duwād	240	Basra, Baghdad	None
7	Asad b. al-Furāt b. Sinān	213	Ifriqiyya	None
8	Bishr b. al-Walīd al-Kindī	238	Baghdad	None
9	Ibn Abī l-Aswad, Abū Bakr	223	Basra (Hamadan)	B (14), D, T
10	Ibn al-Rammāh, Abū Muḥammad	234	Nishapur	None
11	Ibn Samā'a, Abū 'Abdullāh	233	Kufa	None
12	'Īsā b. Abān	221	Basra	None
13	Khālid b. Khalī, Abū l-Qāsim	c. 220	Ḥimṣ	B (1), N
14	Muḥammad b. Bakkār b. Bilāl	216	Damascus	None
15	Sulaymān b. Ḥarb	224	Basra (Mecca)	B (133), ^g M, D, T, N, Q
16	Yalıyā b. Abī l-Khaşīb al-Rāzī		Rayy ('Ukbara)	None

[&]quot; City in parentheses is the city where the scholar served as $q\bar{a}d\bar{i}$ if it is different than his native land.

The prominent judges from this period range from the notorious prosecutor of the mihna, Ibn Abī Duwād, to the master hadīth scholar Sulaymān b. Ḥarb. 'Abdullāh b. Sawwār of Basra is the only case of a judge who followed in the family profession of his father and grandfather, and it should be noted that his son Sawwar (d. 245/859) succeeded him in this post after his death.75 Tsā b. Abān, Ibn Samā'a, Asad b. al-Furāt, and Bishr b. al-Walīd were pupils of Qādī Abū Yūsuf and Muḥammad b. Ḥasan al-Shaybānī, the two most famous pupils of the eponym of the Hanafi madhhab. Al-Dhahabī identifies

Abū Muș'ab al-Zuhrī as an expert in his teacher Mālik's jurisprudence, and both he and the previously mentioned Asad b. al-Furāt are reported to have transmitted recensions of the Muwatta'.76 The judge of Jūzjān 'Abdān was both an important teacher of al-Bukhārī as well as an admirer of Ibn al-Mubārak, whose books he is reported to have copied with a single pen.77 Ibn Abī l-Aswad transmitted a significant amount of material from his maternal uncle 'Abd al-Raḥmān b. Mahdī, whose importance in the discipline of hadīth criticism has been demonstrated in the previous chapter. Finally, Sulaymān b. Harb is remembered primarily for his role in the transmission of hadīth from his teachers Shu'ba and Hammād b. Zayd, and Abū Hātim al-Rāzī records his amazement at the multitudes of pupils who attended his classes in Baghdad prior to his five-year term as judge in Mecca (214-9/829-833).78

The following table of the thirty-six jurists and muftis located in the eleventh and twelfth tabaqāt of Siyar a'lām al-nubalā' demonstrates both the geographical permeation of jurisprudence throughout the Islamic dominions, as well as the significant role played by several jurists in the process of hadīth transmission during the first half of the third/ninth century:79

Table 5.3: Jurists and Muftis of the eleventh and twelfth tabagāt of the Sivar

	Name	Date	City ^a	Ḥadīth legacy ^a
l	'Abd al-Ghaffār b. Dāwūd	224	Basra, Egypt	B (2), ^b D, N, Q
2 3 4	'Abd al-Ḥakam b. 'Abdullāh 'Abd al-Malik b. Maslama 'Abdullāh b. 'Abd al-Ḥakam al-Mālikī	237 224 214	Egypt Basra Egypt	None None N

⁷⁶ Abū Mus'ab is the great-great grandson of the early companion 'Abd al-Raḥmān b. 'Awf and his Muwaṭṭa' was edited by Bashshār Awwād Ma'rūf and Mahmud Muhammad in two volumes (Beirut, 1413/1993).

79 Names in bold are muftīs.

b See above, Table 5.1, note a.

Sezgin, Buhârîmin Kaynaklari, 217 (#31).

d Sezgin. Buhârî'nin Kaynaklari, 219 (#39).

Sezgin, Buhârî'nin Kaynaklari, 209 (#11).

Sezgin, Buhârî'nin Kaynaklari, 247 (#131).

^{*} Sezgin, Buhârî'nin Kaynaklari, 290 (#250). Sixty-six of these hadīth came from Hammad b. Zavd, and 60 were obtained from Shu'ba.

⁷⁵ Siyar, X, 434-5.

⁷⁷ Siyar, X, 270-2. He is reported also to have transmitted a large amount of hadīth from his father from the master hadīth scholar and critic Shu b. al-Ḥajjāj.

⁷⁸ Siyar, X, 330-4. Sulaymān studied with Shu ba during the last two years of his life (158-60/774-6) and then with Hammad until the latter's death nineteen years later. Note that al-Dhahabī identifies Sulaymān as a Shaykh al-Islām in the Siyar but not in the Tadhkira.

	Name	Date	City ^a	Hadīth legacy
5	'Abdullāh b. Nāfi' al-Ṣā'igh	206	Medina	M, D, T, N, Q
6	'Abdullāh b. Nāfi' al-Zubayrī	216	Medina	N, Q
7	Abū Mujālid Aḥmad b.	268		None
8	al-Ḥusayn Abū Muṣʻab Aḥmad b. Abī Bakr	242	Medina	B (3), M, D, T, N, Q
9	Abū Mushir 'Abd al-A'lā b. Mushir	218	Damascus	B, M, D, T, N, Q
10	Ahmad b. Hanbal	241	Baghdad	$B,^d \widetilde{M}, D, T, N, Q$
11	Aḥmad b. Ḥarb b. Fayrūz	234	Nishapur, Mecca	None
12	'Alī b. 'Aththām al-Kilābī	228	Kufa, Nishapur	M
13	'Alī b. Ma'bad b. Shaddād	218	Raqqa, Egypt	None
14	'Amr al-Nāqid b. Muḥammad	232	Baghdad, Raqqa	B (16), M, D
15	Asbagh b. al-Faraj	225	Egypt	B (21), T, N
16	Bishr b. al-Walīd	238	Baghdad	None
17	Ḥarmala b. Yaḥyā al-Tujībī	243	Egypt	M, N, Q
18	Hishām b. 'Ubayd Allāh al-Rāzī	221	Rayy	None
19	al-Ḥumaydī, 'Abdullāh b. al-Żubayr	219	Mecca	B (33), ^g D, T, N
20	Ḥusayn b. Ḥafṣ b. al-Faḍl	212	Kufa, Isfahan	M, Q
21	Ibn al-Mājishūn, 'Abd al-Malik b. 'Abd al-'Azīz	213	Medina	N, Q
22	Ibn Rāhawayh, Isḥāq b. Ibrāhīm	238	Nishapur	B (101), M, D T, N
23	Ibrāhīm b. 'Abdullāh, Abū Shayba	265	Kufa	N, Q
24	Ibrāhīm b. Yūsuf b. Maymūn	239	Balkh	N
25	ʿĪsā b. Abān	221	Basra	None
26	'Īsā b. Dīnār al-Ghāfiqī	212	Cordoba	None
27	Ja'far b. Mubashshir al-Thaqafī	234	Baghdad	None
28	Mu'allā b. Manşūr al-Rāzī	211	Baghdad	M, D, T, Q
29	Muḥammad b. Wahb b. ʿAṭiyya		Damascus	B, Q
30	Muḥammad b. Abān al-Sulamī	238	Wāsiṭ	None

Table 5.3. (cont.)

	Name	Date	City ^a	Ḥadīth legacya
31	Muḥammad b. Bakkār b. Bilāl	216	Damascus	None
32	al-Murrī, Junāda b. Muḥammad	226	Damascus	None
33	Saʻīd b. Abī Maryam al-Hakam	224	Egypt	B (61), ^j M, D, T, N, Q
34	al-Ṣūrī, Muḥammad b. al-Mubārak	215	Damascus	$B, M, \widetilde{D}, T, N, Q$
35	al-Wuḥāẓī, Abū Zakariyyā Yaḥyā b. Ṣāliḥ	222	Damascus	$B_i^{\tau} \widetilde{M}$
36	Yaḥyā b. Yaḥyā al-Laythī	234	Cordoba	None; a Muwaṭṭa'

" See above, Table 5.1, note a.

^b Sezgin, Buhârî'nin Kaynaklari, 207 (#5).

Sezgin does not identify any hadīth which al-Bukhārī heard directly from Abū Mushir in his Sahīh.

d Sezgin does not identify any hadīth which al-Bukhārī heard directly from Ibn Hanbal, although he does mention one that was transmitted to al-Bukhārī by Aḥmad b. al-Hasan; Buhārī'nin Kaynaklari, 220 (#43).

'Sezgin identifies one 'Amr b. Muḥammad b. Ḥasan, although no such person with this nasab is found in al-Bukhārī's Saḥāḥ, according to Ibn Ḥajar (Taqrāb, 363). Therefore, I am assuming that this 'Amr b. Muḥammad is al-Nāqid and that Sezgin has made an error; see Sezgin, Buhān'nin Kaynaklari, 231 (#79).

Sezgin, Buhârî'nin Kaynakları, 232 (#82).

Sezgin, Buhârî'nin Kaynaklari, 213 (#19).
Sezgin, Buhârî'nin Kaynaklari, 252 (#144).

i Muhammad b. Wahb does not appear to have been a direct teacher of al-Bukhārī.

^j Sezgin, Buhârî'nin Kaynakları, 287 (#237).

k Al-Şūrī does not appear to have been a direct teacher of al-Bukhārī.

Al-Wuḥāzī does not appear to have been a direct teacher of al-Bukhārī.

The geographical distribution of these scholars indicates a relatively even dispersion of jurists in the central lands of Egypt and Iraq as well as a handful of men in the "edge" territories of al-Andalus and Iran, many of whom were pupils of one or more of the second/eighth century master jurists Mālik, Abū Yūsuf, and al-Shaybānī.⁸⁰ 'Abdullāh

⁸⁰ For the concept of "edge," see Richard Bulliet, *Islam: The View from the Edge* (New York: Columbia University Press, 1994). The only expert of Shāfi'ī jurisprudence in this generation is Harmala b. Yaḥyā, although it should be remembered that the primary transmitters and compilers of al-Shāfi'ī's teachings, Yūsuf b. Yaḥyā

b. 'Abd al-Hakam is credited with the foundation of the Mālikī school of law in Egypt according to Ibn Hibban, and Asbagh b. al-Faraj was considered by Ibn Ma'īn to be the most knowledgeable scholar of Mālik's opinions.81 Mālik's legal sessions were continued in Medina after his death by his pupil 'Abdullāh b. Nāfi' al-Sā'igh,82 and two of his prominent pupils, the mufti Ibn al-Mājishūn and the judge Abū Mus'ab, propagated his teachings in his home city. Another significant development during this time was the spread of Mālik's legal teachings as far west as Cordoba due to the efforts of the mufti 'Īsā b. Dīnār and the most famous transmitter of the Muwatta', Yahyā b. Yahyā al-Laythī.83 The importance of Mālik's Muwaṭṭa' during this period cannot overestimated, although it is interesting to note that only three of the seven transmitters of this text were labeled jurists by al-Dhahabī.84

Several prominent students of the founders of the Hanafi school of law also flourished during this time.85 Al-Dhahabī identifies 'Alī b. Ma'bad al-Shaddad of Egypt and Raqqa as a transmitter of al-7āmi al-kabīr and al-7āmi al-saghīr from its compiler Muḥammad b. Hasan al-Shaybanī, and 'Abd al-Ghaffar b. Dawud brought his erudition of Hanasi jurisprudence and hadith from Basra to Egypt. 86 The muftī of Baghdad Mu'allā b. Mansūr al-Rāzī was both a sound transmitter of the teachings of Abū Yūsuf and al-Shaybānī as well as a jurist whose hadīth were included in all six of the canonical Sunnī

al-Buwaytī (d. 231/846), al-Rabī b. Sulaymān (d. 270/884), and Ismā lb. Yahyā al-Muzanī (d. 264/878) flourished during this time and are included in the thirteenth and fourteenth tabagāt of the Siyar, XII, 58-61, 591-2, and 492-8, respectively.

books, according to al-Dhahabī.87 Hishām b. 'Ubayd Allāh had the honor of having al-Shaybānī pass away in his house in Rayy, and al-Wuhāzī is reported to have accompanied al-Shaybānī to Mecca.88 Perhaps the most controversial advocate of Hanafi jurisprudence of this age was the mufti of Balkh, Ibrāhīm b. Yūsuf, whose quarrel with the master hadīth scholar Qutayba b. Sa'īd led to the latter's expulsion from Balkh to the village of Baghlūl.89 Finally, the judge Bishr b. al-Walīd (d. 238/852-3) is reported to have transmitted materials from his teacher Abū Yūsuf, and the 'jurist of Iraq' 'Īsā b. Abān (d. 221/836) was a pupil of al-Shaybānī.90

Two individual scholars on this list deserve special mention for the fact that their legal teachings elevated them to the status of eponyms for schools of law. The case of Ibn Hanbal will be discussed in detail in the last section of this chapter, and that of Ishāq b. Rāhawayh has been mentioned only briefly in the course of the seven-phase narrative of hadīth transmission in the third chapter. Ibn Rāhawayh embarked upon an odyssey of hadīth study in all of the major centers of the Islamic world starting in the year 184/800 and acquired knowledge from such luminaries as Ibn 'Uyayna, Wakī' b. al-Jarrāh, Yazīd b. Hārūn, Yaḥyā l-Qaṭṭān, Ibn Mahdī, and 'Abd al-Razzāq al-San'ānī.91 He is reported to have been in Baghdad in 199/815 with his pupil Muhammad al-Dhuhlī and to have led the teaching session in the presence of Ibn Hanbal, Ibn Ma'īn, and other hadīth scholars.92 Ibn Khuzayma praised Ibn Rāhawayh for his jurisprudence, and al-Dhahabī observed that he was an "Imām of tafsīr, leader in jurisprudence, and among the Imams of ythad."93 Finally, al-Dhahabī was deeply impressed with Ibn Rāhawayh's extraordinary memory, and observed that he made only two errors in the corpus of seventy-thousand hadīth that he had memorized.94

Siyar, X, 220-3 ('Abdullāh b. 'Abd al-Hakam); Siyar, X, 656-8 (Asbagh). While the former was a pupil of Mālik, Asbagh acquired his legal knowledge from the Egyptians Ibn Wahb and Ibn al-Qasim.

⁸² 'Abdullāh actually inherited the post from Ibn Kināna who had in turn followed Mālik.

⁸³ The Formation of the Sunnī Schools of Law, 158. Melchert notes that the next leader of the Mālikī school in al-Andalus was 'Abd al-Malik b. Ḥabīb (d. 238/853), another contemporary of this period in the thirteenth tabaga; Siyar, XII, 102-7.

³⁴ The three jurist Muwatta' transmitters are Abū Mus'ab, Asad b. al-Furāt, and Yahvā b. Yahvā. The four remaining transmitters appear to have been hadīth scholars and include 'Abdullāh b. Yūsuf al-Kalā'ī (d. 218/833), al-Qa'nabī, Suwayd b. Sa'īd (d. 240/854), and Yaḥyā b. 'Abdullāh b. Bukayr (d. 231/845).

⁸⁵ Melchert's argument that the classical Hanafi school did not begin until al-Karkhī has been mentioned above in note 3; he does, however, acknowledge the critical significance of the books of al-Shaybānī and Abū Yūsuf during the third/ninth

⁸⁶ Siyar, X, 631-2 ('Alī b. Ma'bad) and X, 438-9 ('Abd al-Ghaffar b. Dāwūd).

⁸⁷ Siyar, X, 365-70; Tadhkira, I, 277-8. His teachers include Mālik, Abū Yūsuf, Ibn al-Mubārak, al-Layth b. Sa'd, and Hammād b. Zayd.

⁸⁸ Siyar, X, 446-7 ('Übayd Allāh) and X, 453-6 (al-Wuḥāzī). 89 Siyar, XI, 61-2. Note that Ibrāhīm was also a pupil of Mālik.

⁹⁰ Siyar, X, 673-6 (Bishr) and 440 ('Isā).

⁹¹ Siyar, XI, 359.

⁹² Siyar, XI, 381. 93 Siyar, XI, 375.

⁹⁴ Siyar, XI, 379. For a useful introduction to Ibn Rāhawayh's style of jurisprudence, see Susan Spectorsky, "Hadīth in the Responses of Ishāq b. Rāhwayh," Islamic Law and Society, 8.3 (2001), 407-31.

The contribution of this group of jurists to the global project of hadīth transmission is striking. The transmissions of Abū Muṣʿab, Abū Mushir, Ibn Hanbal, Mu'allā b. Mansūr, Sa'īd b. Abī Marvam, and Muhammad al-Sūrī are found in all six of the canonical Sunnī books, and three additional jurists submitted material to more than half of these books. Either al-Bukhārī or Muslim includes hadīth from seventeen of these thirty-six scholars, and al-Nasā'ī incorporates material from no fewer than sixteen of them in his Sunan al-mujtabā. When we add the results obtained from our analysis of judges to these findings, we find another scholar, Sulayman b. Harb, whose hadith are also found in all six books, as well as another three teachers of al-Bukhārī. This study of the eleventh and twelfth tabaqāt of al-Dhahabī's Siyar a'lām al-nubalā' reveals the significant role of a modest number of prominent legal experts in the transmission of both the juristic teachings of Mālik, Abū Yūsuf, and al-Shaybānī, and the broader venture of hadīth compilation during the first half of the third/ninth century.

V.2.6 Hadīth scholars

The most important category of men of the eleventh and twelfth tabaqāt of Siyar a'lām al-nubalā' for this project, the hadīth scholars, poses a unique challenge in that there is not a single keyword which one can employ to identify members of this group. Nine of the ten scholars who were mentioned in the eighth tabaga of Tadhkirat alhuffaz in the third chapter of this book are also situated in this generation of the Siyar, as are eight master hadīth critics whom I identified in the previous chapter.95 The goal of this section is to identify and analyze the roles of the most important contributors to the global phenomenon of hadīth transmission and compilation on the basis of al-Dhahabi's qualitative opinions in the Siyar, the distribution of an individual scholar's transmissions among the six canonical Sunnī hadīth books, and the textual legacies of these men.

Al-Dhahabī employs several tantalizing qualitative terms related to hadīth transmission in the Siyar whose meanings were discussed previously in the second chapter.96 One hundred and sixty men are identified as hāfiz in the eleventh and twelfth tabagāt of the Siyar, and 117 of these individuals are also identified as Imam. The largest concentrations of these huffaz are found in Baghdad (48), Basra (42), and Kufa (21), and at least sixteen other cities enjoyed the presence of a dozen or fewer of these high caliber scholars during this period.⁹⁷ It is clear from these findings that the term hafiz is too broad to be of much assistance to our goal of identifying the most important hadīth scholars of the age of Ibn Sa'd, Ibn Ma'īn, and Ibn Hanbal, and so it is to other terms that we shall direct our attention.

The first of these terms that is indicative of an elevated status of hadīth acumen is hujja, a word that means "proof" or "evidence."98 Al-Dhahabī identifies a mere thirty scholars hailing from eight cities with this label, and the following table provides an overview of these men.

Table 5.4: Huna Hadīth scholars of the eleventh and twelfth tabagāt of the Sivar

	Name	Date	City ^a	Ḥadīth legacya
l	'Abbās b. al-Walīd al-Narsī	237	Basra	B, b M, N
2	Abū Ghassān Mālik b. Ismā'īl	219	Kufa	B (25), M, D,
3	Abū Khaythama Zuhayr b. Harb	234	Baghdad	T, N, Q B (12),d M, D, N, Q
4	Abū l-Yamān al-Hakam b. Nāfi	221	Ḥimṣ	B (257), M, D
5	Aḥmad b. 'Abdullāh b. Yūnus	227	Kufa	T, N, Q B (65), M, D, T, N, Q

⁹⁵ The nine men from the Tadhkira are Ibn Hanbal, Hishām b. 'Ammār, Ibn Ma'ın, 'Alı b. al-Madını, Abu Khaythama, 'Amr al-Fallas, Ibn Sa'd, Ibn Abı Shayba, and Ibn Rahawayh. The eight master critics include all of the previous men (minus Hishām b. 'Ammār and Ibn Sa'd) as well as Ibn Numayr.

⁹⁶ See above, II.3. One must bear in mind that the al-Dhahabī explicitly devotes Tadhkirat al-huffāz to major hadīth scholars, whereas Siyar a'lām al-nubalā' includes numerous luminaries who played absolutely no role in this process; it is also quite clear that some terms, such as Shaykh al-Islām, had stricter criteria in the Tadhkira than the Sivar.

Note that many scholars spent time in multiple cities, so the sum is greater than 160; these figures should merely be taken as a rough idea as to the number of huffaz found in a particular region during this time: Marw (14), Egypt (10), Damascus (7), Nishapur (6), Mecca (6), Rayy (5), Hims (4), Samarra (3), Balkh (3), Medina (3), Bukhara (2), Wāsiṭ (2), Harran (2), Maṣṣiṣa (2), Qazvin (2), Mosul (1).

⁹⁸ wa l-hujjatu burhānun, wa qīla l-hujjatu mā dūfi a bihi l-khasm. wa qāla l-Azharī: alhujjatu l-wajhu lladhī yakūnu bihi l-zafaru inda l-khusūma, Lisān al-arab, II, 228.

Table 5.4. (cont.)

	Name	Date	Citya	Ḥadīth legacy
6	'Ali b. 'Abdullāh al-Madīnī	234	Basra, Baghdad	B (294), ^g D, T, N
7	'Alī b. Ḥujr b. Iyās	244	Marv, Baghdad	B (2), M, T, N
8	'Alī b. al-Ja'd b. 'Ubayd	230	Baghdad	B (13), D
9	'Amr al-Nāqid b. Muḥammad	232	Baghdad, Raqqa	B (16), M, D
10	'Amr b. Khālid b. Farrūkh	229	Egypt	B (21), Q
11	Ḥabbān b. Hilāl al-Baṣrī	216	Basra	B, M, D, T, N, Q
12	Ḥajjāj b. al-Minhāl al-Anmāṭī	217	Basra	B (53), ^m M, D, T, N, Q
13	al-Ḥakam b. Mūsā	232	Baghdad	M, N, Q
14	Hannād b. al-Sarī	243	Kufa	M, D, T, N, Q
15	al-Ḥasan b. al-Rabī⁴	221	Kufa	B (6), ⁿ M, D, N, Q
16	Ḥibbān b. Mūsā b. Sawwār	233	Marw	B (22),° M, T, N
17	al-Ḥusayn b. Ḥurayth	244	Marw, Qarmisin ^p	B (1), M, D, T, N
18	Ibn Numayr, Muḥammad b. ʿAbdullāh	234	Kufa	B (15), M, D, T, N, Q
19	Ibn Sa'd, Muḥammad b. Sa'd	230	Baghdad	None
20	Khalaf b. Hishām b. Tha'lab	229	Baghdad	M, D
21	Muʻallā b. Asad Abū l-Haytham	219	Basra	B (35), ^s M, T, N, Q
22	Muḥammad b. ʿAbdullāh b. ʿAmmār	242	Mosul	N
23	Muḥammad b. al-Ṣabbāḥ al-Dūlābī	227	Baghdad	B (9), M, D, T, N, Q
24	Musaddad b. Musarhad	228	Basra	B (381), D, T, N
25	al-Rabī' þ. Yaḥyā b. Miqsam	224	Basra	B (3), D
26	al-Ṣūrī, Muḥammad b. al-Mubārak	215	Damascus	B", M, D, T, N, Q
27	al-Tabūdhakī, Mūsā b. Ismāʻīl	223	Basra	B (239),* M, D, T, N, Q
28	'Ubayd b. Ya'īsh al-Maḥāmilī	229	Kufa	M, N
29	al-Uwaysī, 'Abd al-'Azīz b, 'Abdullāh	220?	Medina	B (92), D, T, Q
30	al-Zammī, Yaḥyā b. Yūsuf	229		B(4), Q

a See above, Table 5.1, note a.

- ' Sezgin, Buhârî'nin Kaynaklari, 257 (#158). d Sezgin, Buhârî'nin Kaynaklari, 303 (#293).
- " Sezgin, Buhârî'nin Kaynaklari, 241 (#108). All of Abū l-Yamān's hadīth come from Shu'ayb b. Abī Hamza; 200 of these are hadīth from al-Zuhrī, and 51 come from Abū l-Zinād.
 - Sezgin, Buhârî'nin Kaynaklari, 224 (#59).
- g Sezgin, Buhârî'nin Kaynaklari, 225-6 (#61). Note that 'Alī obtained 196 of these hadīth from Ibn 'Uyayna.
- b Sezgin, Buhârî'nin Kaynaklari, 229 (#69).
- Sezgin, Buhârî'nin Kaynaklari, 227 (#63).
- See above, Table 5.3, note e.
- k Sezgin, Buhârî'nin Kaynaklari, 231 (#77).
- Habbān does not appear to have been a direct teacher of al-Bukhārī.
- " Sezgin, Buhârî'nin Kaynaklari, 240 (#105). " Sezgin, Buhârî'nin Kaynaklari, 244 (#121).
- " Sezgin, Buhârî'nin Kaynaklari, 246 (#126).
- P A village near Dinawar.
- 4 Sezgin, Buhârî'nin Kaynaklari, 246 (#128).
- Sezgin, Buhârî'nin Kaynaklari, 261 (#174, reading Numayr instead of 'Umayr).
- Sezgin, Buhârî'nin Kaynaklari, 258 (#163). Sezgin, Buhârî'nin Kaynaklari, 274 (#207).
- " Sezgin, Buhârî'nin Kaynaklari, 281 (#225). Musaddad has the distinction of being al-Bukhārī's most popular source; 191 of his hadīth come from Yaḥyā l-Qattān.
- Sezgin, Buhârî'nin Kaynaklari, 286 (#233).
- " See above, Table 5.3, note k.
- * Sezgin, Buhârî'nin Kaynaklari, 280 (#223).
- Sezgin, Buhârî'nin Kaynaklari, 206 (#4).
- ² Sezgin, Buhârî'nin Kaynaklari, 300 (#283).

The most striking feature of this coterie of scholars is the deep permeation of their hadīth transmissions throughout the most prestigious Sunnī hadīth collections. Nine of these men contributed to all six of the canonical Sunnī books, five appear in five of the six books, and the materials of an additional four scholars are located in four of these books. Al-Bukhārī obtained over one thousand hadīth from Abū l-Yamān, 'Alī b. al-Madīnī, Musaddad, and al-Tabūdhakī for his Sahīh, and only one of these thirty scholars, Ibn Sa'd, failed to make it into any of the six canonical books for the very likely reason that he was more interested in the history of hadīth transmission than its actual practice, and also because a significant amount of his material came from the "unreliable" transmitter al-Wāqidī.99 While we

b 'Abbās does not appear to have been a direct teacher of al-Bukhārī.

⁹⁹ This is al-Dhahabī's opinion; al-Mizzī informs us that Abū Dāwūd does include one report from Ibn Sa'd in his Sunan, although it is a report from his teacher Abū l-Walīd al-Ţayālisī that "the people say that Qabīsa b. Waqqās was a sahābī" and not a prophetic hadīth; al-Mizzī, Tahdhīb al-kamāl, XXV, 258.

Date City^a Hadīth legacya Name Balkh, B (304),8 M, D, Qutayba b. Sa'īd al-Balkhī 240 Baghlūl T, N, Q B (42)h 223 Marw Sadaga b. al-Fadl Sulaymān b. Harb al-Azdī 224 B (133), M, D, Basra. Baghdad, T, N, O Mecca 14 al-Tabūdhakī, Abū Salama 223 B (239), M, D, Basra Mūsā b. Ismā'īl T, N, Q 15 Yahyā b. Yahyā l-Tamīmī 226 Nishapur B (3), M, T, N

b Sezgin, Buhârî'nin Kaynaklari, 293 (#260).

The roles of these fifteen Shuyūkh al-Islām in hadīth transmission resembles closely those of the men whom al-Dhahabī recognized as hujja. Six of these scholars contributed material to all six of the canonical Sunnī books and an additional three men are found in at least half of these books. Al-Bukhārī included over 350 hadīth from Abū l-Walīd al-Tayālisī, al-Qa'nabī, Sulaymān b. Ḥarb, and over 500 hadīth from Qutayba b. Sa'īd and al-Tabūdhakī, in his Sahīh. Only one Shaykh al-Islām, the ascetic Bishr al-Ḥāfī, did not contribute to the process of hadīth transmission, and at least one reason for his not having done so was mentioned in our recent discussion of ascetics of this generation.

The final approach towards the task of the identification of the major hadīth scholars of the first half of the third/ninth century prior to the synthesis of the information present in these charts is that of

cannot be certain of the precise intention of al-Dhahabī's term huja, it is clear that the thirty men to whom al-Dhahabī affixed this term in Siyar a'lām al-nubalā' were among the most influential hadīth transmitters of their day.

The second qualitative term of interest is one that was employed fruitfully in the second and third chapters of this book, namely Shaykh al-Islām. Al-Dhahabī bestows this title upon a mere fifteen of the 345 men of the eleventh and twelfth *tabaqāt* of the *Siyar*, although this is significantly higher than the number of Shuyūkh al-Islām found in the *Tadhkira* for the same period. 100

Table 5.5: Shuyūkh al-Islām of the eleventh and twelfth tabaaāt of the Siyar

	;1			
	Name	Date	City ^a	Ḥadīth legacya
ı	Abū Qudāma al-Sarakhsī,	241	Nishapur	B (15), M, N
2	'Ubayd Allāh b. Sa'īd Abū l-Walīd al-Ṭayālisī,	227	Basra	B (112),° M, D, T, N, Q
3	Hishām b. 'Abd al-Malik Aḥmad b. Ḥanbal	241	Baghdad	B,d M, D, T, N, Q
4	'Alī b. 'Aththām al-Kilābī	228	Kufa, Nishapur	M M
5	Bishr b. al-Ḥārith al-Ḥāfī	227	Settled Baghdad	None
6	Ibn Numayr, Muḥammad b. 'Abdullāh	234	Kufa	B (15), M, D, T, N, Q
7	Ibn Shabbūya, Aḥmad b. Muhammad	230	Marw, Tarsus	D
8	Ibrāhīm b. 'Abdullāh b. Ḥātim al-Harawī	244	Baghdad	T, Q
9	Khalaf b. Hishām al-Bazzār	229	Baghdad	M, D
10	al-Qaʻnabī, ʻAbdullāh b. Maslama	221	Basra, Mecca	B (131), M, D, T, N; a Muwaṭṭa'

a See above, Table 5.1, note a.

^c Sezgin, Buhârî'nin Kaynaklari, 239 (#102). Seventy-eight of these hadīth come from Shu'ba.

d See above, Table 5.3, note d.

^c See above, Table 5.4, note r.

f Sezgin, Buhârî'nin Kaynaklari, 208 (#9). A total of 101 of these hadīth come from Mālik.

g Sezgin, Buhârî'nin Kaynaklari, 284 (#232).

h Sezgin, Buhârî'nin Kaynaklari, 291 (#252).

Sezgin, Buhârî'nin Kaynaklari, 290 (#250). Sulaymān was also found in Table 5.2.

^j Sezgin, *Buhârî'nin Kaynaklari*, 280 (#223). Al-Tabūdhakī was also found in Table

k Sezgin, Buhârî'nin Kaynaklari, 299 (#281). Ibn Ḥajar does not record a Yaḥyā b. Yaḥyā b. Bukayr al-Ḥanzalī among al-Bukhārī's teachers, which is the name printed in Buhârî'nin Kaynaklari. I assume that the correct name is Yaḥyā b. Yaḥyā b. Bakr al-Tamīmī; see Taqrīb, 528.

¹⁰⁰ The Shuyūkh al-Islām present in the *Tadhkira* are Ibn Ḥanbal, Hishām b. 'Ammār, and 'Abdullāh b. Sa'īd al-Ashajj. Al-Dhahabī's opinion on Hishām seems to have changed, as he is not called a Shaykh al-Islām in the *Siyar*. Al-Ashajj receives the somewhat unusual sobriquet 'Shaykh of the time (al-waqħ)' in the *Siyar*, and al-Dhahabī mentions that he saw his one-volume tafsīr that is no longer extant; Siyar, XII, 182–5; GAS, I, 134. Note that al-Ashajj's hadīth are found in all six canonical Sunnī books and those of Hishām are found in all but Muslim's Ṣahīh.

textual compilation. Al-Dhahabī mentions nine men who compiled musnads, although only fragments of those by al-Humaydī and Ibn Abī Shayba have survived to this day and been published. 101 Seven recensions of Mālik's Muwatta' were circulated by members of this generation, although two of them were done so by men who were strictly jurists and did not play any role in the greater enterprise of hadīth transmission. 102 Two books bearing the title Sunan were composed during this period by the hujja Muḥammad b. al-Ṣabbāḥ al-Dūlābī and the Marwazī Sa'īd b. Mansūr who followed the pious tradition of settling in Mecca. 103 Two of the earliest tabagāt books of hadīth scholars were also compiled by Khalīfa b. al-Khayvāt and Ibn Sa'd, and another prosopographical work of significance dating to this time is Ibn Abī Khaythama's al-Tārīkh al-kabīr. 104 The final major hadīth book of this generation is the enormous Musannaf of Ibn Abī Shavba, a work whose serious study is a prerequisite for any fair understanding of the nature of Islam during the first two centuries following the death of the Prophet Muḥammad. 105

It is time to synthesize these various tables of hadīth scholars into a cogent narrative of the world of hadīth transmission on the eve of the compilation of the six canonical Sunnī hadīth books. The center of this universe was Iraq in general, and Baghdad and Basra in particular. Abū 'Ubayd's observation that hadīth erudition is located among four scholars—Ibn Hanbal, Ibn Ma'īn, 'Alī b. al-Madīnī, and Ibn Abī Shayba—is indicative of the primacy of Iraq in this field of scholarship. Baghdad housed the Shuyūkh al-Islām Ibn Hanbal, Ibrāhīm b. 'Abdullāh al-Harawī, Sulaymān b. Ḥarb, and Khalaf b. Hishām, and four additional scholars whose hadīth is present in all six books elected to make it their new homes. 106 Ibn Sa'd, 'Alī b. al-Madīnī, Ibn Abī Khaythama, Ahmad b. Manī^c, 107</sup> Muḥammad al-Dūlābī, and Sahl b. Zanjala all composed hadīth-related books, many of which have survived, in Baghdad and established the foundation of hadīth scholarship that was to last well into the Middle Periods of Islamic civilization.

The city of Basra was the only rival of Baghdad in the realm of hadīth scholarship, and may have been its superior. 108 The scholars of this period built upon the foundation established in the second/eighth century by Shu'ba b. al-Ḥajjāj, Ḥammād, b. Salama, Hammād b. Zayd, and their contemporaries. 109 No fewer than ten Basran scholars contributed to all six of the Sunnī canonical books, and one in particular, al-Tabūdhakī, was praised as both a Shaykh al-Islām and hujja in the Siyar. 110 Abū l-Walīd al-Tayālisī was considered to have some of the most reliable transmissions from his teacher Shu'ba and Ibn Hajar al-'Asqalani had access to both

The other seven compilers of musnads are Ahmad b. Manī' of Marw and Baghdad (d. 244/858), Ibn Kāsib of the Hijāz (d. 241/855), Musaddad b. Musarhad of Basra (d. 228/843), Nu'aym b. Hammād, Sahl b. Zanjala of Rayy and Baghdad (d. 238/852-3), Abū Ishāq Ibrāhīm b. Nasr al-Surīnī of Nishapur (d. 213/828 or 210/825), and the Kufan Yahvā b. 'Abd al-Hamīd al-Himmānī (d. 228/843), Ibn Hajar included the Musnads of Musaddad and Ahmad b. Manī' in his al-Maṭālib al-faliva bi-zawa'id al-masānīd al-thamāniva. None of these books is mentioned by Sezgin in GAS. Four volumes of Ibn Rāhawayh's musnad have been published recently as well. One could add the Musnad of Ibn Hanbal to this list, although it is really the product of his son 'Abdullāh.

These men are Asad b. al-Furāt and Yahyā l-Laythī, both of whom were discussed in the section devoted to judges, jurists, and muftis in this chapter.

Al-Dūlābī's Sunan was seen by al-Dhahabī; Siyar, X, 670-2. Sa'īd b. Mansūr's Sunan is discussed below.

We observed in the previous chapter that these latter two works were declared to be among the ten primary sources for hadith-transmitter criticism by al-Mizzī in the introduction to his Tahdhīb al-kamāl.

¹⁰⁵ There are several additional references to notebooks and private collections of hadīth materials during this period that we must ignore in the interest of brevity. Examples of this sort include Khalaf b. Tamīm's collection of 10,000 "Sufyān al-Thawrī hadīth," Mu'āwiya b. 'Amr al-Muhallāb's (d. 214/829) transmission of Zā'ida b. Qudāma's (d. 161/778) Muşannaf, 'Alī b. al-Ja'd's (d. 230/845) collection of 1200 "Shu'ba hadīth," a "famous juz" from Abū l-Jahm al-A'lā b. Mūsā (d. 228/843), and a "famous nuskha of elevated hadīth" from Tālūt b. 'Abbād (d. 238/852-3); see Siyar, X, 212-3, 214-5, 459-68, 525-6; XI, 25-6. Ibn al-Ja'd's collection of Shu'ba hadīth has been published recently in the first volume of Abū l-Qāsim al-Baghawī, al-Ja'diyat: hadīth 'Alī ibn al-Ja'd al-Jawharī (134-230 H), ed. Rif'at Fawzī 'Abd al-Muttalib (Cairo: Maktabat al-Khāniī, 1994).

¹⁰⁶ These scholars are Mu'allā b. Manṣūr al-Rāzī, Mu'āwiya b. 'Amr, Sa'duwayh, and 'Aflan b. Muslim.

His musnad is included in Ibn Ḥajar's al-Matālib al-ʿāliya; see II, 52-3.

¹⁰⁸ This observation contradicts van Ess's statement that Basra and Kufa suffered from a "brain-drain" by the beginning of the third/ninth century due to the rise of Baghdad; Theologie und Gesellschaft, III, 29; these observations by van Ess are cited by Zaman in Religion and Politics under the early Abbāsids, 161.

¹⁰⁹ Al-Dhahabī identifies ten Imāms of Basra belonging to this generation: Yazīd b. Zuray' (d. 182/798), Ḥammād b. Zayd (d. 179/795), 'Abd al-Wārith b. Sa'īd (d. 180/796), Mu'tamir b. Sulaymān (d. 187/803), 'Abd al-Wāḥid b. Ziyād (d. 176/792), Ja'far b. Sulaymān (d. 178/794), Wuhayb b. Khālid (d. 165/781), Khālid b. al-Hārith (d. 186/802), Bishr b. al-Mufaddal (d. 186/802), and Ibn 'Ulayya; see Siyar, VIII, 296. 110 Siyar, X, 360-5.

Musaddad's al-Musnad al-kabīr and al-Musnad al-saghīr. 111 'Alī b. al-Madīnī was heir to the critical discipline founded by his teachers Yaḥyā l-Qattān and 'Abd al-Raḥmān b. Mahdī, and his contemporary 'Amr b. 'Alī al-Fallās continued this tradition as well. It is interesting that Basran scholars made only a modest textual contribution to the earliest Sunnī hadīth literature, although its native sons Musaddad and Ibn Sa'd are clear exceptions to this observation.

The Iraqi city of Kufa continued the high standards of hadīth scholarship that had been established by Sufvān al-Thawrī and his student Wakī' b. al-Jarrāh, among others. Ibn Numayr was awarded the sobriquet Shaykh al-Islām by al-Dhahabī and contributed to all six of the canonical Sunnī hadīth books. Abū Ghassān, Abū Kurayb, Ahmad b. Yūnus, and al-Hasan b. al-Rabī' also influenced these six books, despite the fact that the first of these was an adherent to tashayyu^c and that Abū Kurayb acknowledged the doctrine of the createdness of the Qur'an during the mihna. Ibn Abī Shayba set a new standard of compilation with his massive Musannaf as well as his Musnad and Qur'anic exegesis, and the somewhat controversial Yahya b. 'Abd al-Hamīd al-Himmānī (d. 228/843) composed what may have been the first Musnad of Kufa.112 Despite the long shadow cast by Baghdad and Basra, Kufa's role in hadīth transmission during the first half of the third/ninth century was impressive, and no serious compiler appears to have been foolish enough to neglect studying with its most prominent teachers.

The regions to the west of Iraq contained surprisingly few high caliber hadīth scholars. 113 Mecca benefited from its status as a place of pilgrimage and pious retreat and its one native master scholar, al-Humaydī, was augmented by Sulaymān b. Harb, al-Qa'nabī, and

III Ibn Hajar includes these books in his massive al-Matālib al-'āliva; for the isnāds of these texts, see II, 29-37.

the Khurāsānī Sa'īd b. Manṣūr. The situation in Medina was even more precarious, as the only major hadīth scholars in our survey of the Siyar were the native sons al-Uwaysī and Abū Muș'ab al-Zuhrī. Egypt hosted only one scholar found in all six of the authoritative Sunnī hadīth books, Sa'īd b. Abī Maryam, and two of its other prominent hadīth scholars, Nu'aym b. Ḥammād and Abū Ṣāliḥ kātib al-Layth b. Sa'd (d. 223/838), had a penchant of transmitting suspect material.114 The only bright spot west of Iraq for hadīth scholarship was Syria, as al-Sūrī, Abū Mushir, and Hishām b. 'Ammār flourished in Damascus and Abū l-Mughīra and Abū l-Yaman put Ḥims on the map for the compilers of the six books. Two other scholars of significance in Syria include the Shaykh al-Islām Ibn Shabūyya in Tarsus and 'Amr b. Abī Salama who settled in Tinnīs and also contributed a small number of hadīth to all six of the canonical Sunnī compilations.

The relative mediocrity of the lands west of Iraq in the field of hadith studies was more than compensated for by the activity in the Eastern lands. Indeed, it is little wonder that five of the six compilers of the canonical hadith books hailed from cities east of Rayy. The first master hadith scholar of this region in the eyes of al-Dhahabī was the Nishapurian Yaḥyā b. Yaḥyā l-Tamīmī, who received the title Shaykh al-Islām, studied with an enormous array of scholars, and whose hadīth left a deep impact on Muslim's Sahīh.115 Ibn Rāhawayh traveled to Iraq in 184/800 to collect material and led a hadith session in Baghdad in 199/815 that was attended by no less than Ibn Hanbal and Ibn Ma'īn. His material left an indeliable mark upon the books of al-Bukhārī, Muslim and al-Nasā'ī. Two other Shuyūkh al-Islām flourished during this time in Nishapur, the Kufan adīb 'Alī b. 'Aththām and the 'propagator of the Sunna' Abū Qudāma al-Sarakhsī.116

¹¹² Yahvā l-Himmānī was declared to be unreliable by Ibn Hanbal and reliable by Ibn Ma'īn. Ibn 'Adī is reported to have examined Yahyā's Musnad and found it to be devoid of suspect hadith, and Abū Hātim praised him for the accuracy of his transmission of material from Sufvān al-Thawrī. Nonetheless, none of Yahyā's hadīth were included in any of the 'six books.' Al-Dhahabī includes a report that Yahyā was of the opinion that Mu'āwiya died a non-Muslim, an opinion that would find sympathy in Kufa and antagonism in the rest of the Islamic world; Siyar, X, 526-40.

¹¹³ Note that al-Dhahabī did not include a record of any serious hadīth scholar from west of Egypt during this period.

¹¹⁴ Several examples of Abū Ṣālih's forgeries have been preserved in the Siyar, X, 405-16. One of the more interesting ones for this project is the following: "God chose my Companions over all other people except prophets and messengers and then chose four of my companions. All of my Companions are good-Abū Bakr, 'Umar, 'Uthmān, and 'Alī. [God also] chose my community over all other communities;" (inna llāha ikhtāra aṣḥābī ʿalā jamī ʿi l-ʿālamīna mā khalā l-nabiyyīna wa l-mursalīna wa ikhtāra min ashābī arb'atan wa fī kulli ashābī khayrun. Abū Bakr, 'Umar, 'Uthmān, wa 'Alī; wa khtāra ummatī 'alī sā'iri l-umam; ibid., X, 415.

This expression is based on the following statement attributed to Ibn Ḥibbān:

Two other Khurasānī scholars both foreshadowed and educated the compilers of the six canonical Sunnī books. Qutayba b. Sa'īd left his homeland of Balkh in 172/788-9 at the age of 23 and was able to study with Mālik b. Anas, Hammad b. Zayd, and Ibn al-Mubārak in their twilight years. 117 There is a report of his hadīth session in Baghdad in 216/831, which was attended by Ibn Hanbal and Ibn Ma'in, as well as another all-night affair during which the voung Abū Hātim watched Qutayba, Ibn al-Numayr, and Ibn Abī Shayba select (intakhaba) the best hadīth that they had accumulated. There is even a report preserved in the Sivar a'lām al-nubalā' in which Outayba explains to an inquisitive student that the hadīth he has written in red ink are from Ibn Hanbal and those which he has in green ink are from Ibn Ma'īn.118 Even Qutayba's altercation with the judge of Balkh, Ibrāhīm b. Yūsuf, to which we already alluded in our discussion of jurists of this period, and his subsequent exile to the town of Baghlūl is a remarkable precursor to al-Bukhārī's forced exile from his native city less than half a century later.

The other scholar whose trajectory foreshadows that of the Eastern scholars who came to dominate the disciplines of hadīth scholarship in the period immediately following the generation of Ibn Sa'd, Ibn Ma'īn, and Ibn Hanbal is Sa'īd b. Mansūr. A native of Marw, 119 Sa'īd traveled throughout the lands of Islam in his youth, studied with a multitude of scholars, including Mālik and Ibn 'Uyayna, and ultimately settled in Mecca. In addition to his contributions to all six of the canonical Sunnī hadīth books, Sa'īd composed his own book of Sunan that was transmitted by a scholar of Herat named Ahmad b. Najda b. al-'Uryān. 120 This book, which appears to be

[Abū Qudāma] huwa lladhī azhara l-sunnata bi-Sarakhs wa da'ā l-nāsa ilayhā; Siyar, X,

similar in structure to the the Muwatta' of Mālik and the Musannaf of Ibn Abī Shayba, included reports from the Prophet Muhammad, the sahāba, and prominent tābi ūn, and probably was overshadowed rapidly by the 'six books' that consisted solely of prophetic hadith.

V.2.7

The goal of this section has been to sketch the religious and intellectual milieu in which Ibn Sa'd, Ibn Ma'īn, and Ibn Hanbal engaged in their intense cultivation of hadīth criticism. The courts of the 'Abbāsids in Iraq and Ibn Tāhir in Nishapur inspired a high culture of poetry, music, dialectic theology, and belles lettres that elevated the Arabic language to dizzying heights of eloquence and intellectual sophistication. 121 This was also a period of ascetic experimentation and witnessed some of the earliest seeds of Islamic mysticism. 122 While many jurists of the age devoted their energies towards the elucidation and propagation of the teaching of Mālik, al-Shaybānī, and Abū Yūsuf, others such as Ibn Rāhawayh, Abū 'Ubayd, and Ibn Hanbal engaged in independent legal reasoning. Many of these scholars also played a major role in hadīth scholarship in addition to their contributions to the growing body of legal scholarship.

Al-Dhahabī's obsession with the lives of hadīth scholars is manifest in the eleventh and twelfth tabaqāt of Siyar a'lām al-nubalā'. I have attempted to isolate the most significant of these erudite men among the hundreds of entries of individuals who played at least a marginal role in the transmission of prophetic material by means of selecting those scholars whom al-Dhahabī praises as hujja or Shaykh al-Islām, or who themselves compiled books. This process has reduced the field of scholars to a manageable number, the majority of whom either lived or spent significant parts of their lives in Baghdad, Basra, or Kufa. We have observed a great imbalance between the somewhat lackluster state of hadīth scholarship in the Ḥijāz, Egypt, and Syria and the major accomplishments of eastern scholars such as

¹¹⁷ Al-Dhahabī includes a report in which Outayba identifies four huffaz—Ibn 'Ulavya, 'Abd al-Wārith b. Sa'īd, Wuhayb b. Khālid, and Yazīd b. Zuray'—all of whom were Basrans and presumably influenced him immensely; Siyar, VIII, 224. 118 Siyar, XI, 17.

Two other master hadith scholars who lived in Marw during this period were the Shaykh al-Islām Şadaqa b. al-Fadl and 'Alī b. Hujr (d. 244/858), the latter of whom spent a large part of his life in Baghdad prior to his return to his home-

¹²⁰ A fragment of this book was published by Habīb al-Rahmān al-A'zamī as Kītab al-Sunan li-Sa'īd b. Manṣūr (Dabhil [India]: Majlis-Ilmi, 1967). Another fragment of this book has been edited by Sa'd b. 'Abdullah b. 'Abd al-'Azīz in five volumes as Sunan Sa'īd ibn Mansūr (Riyadh: Dār al-Sumay'ī, 1993).

¹²¹ This period also witnessed the great translation project of Greek scientific litcrature into Arabic, as well as the first Arabic philosopher, al-Kindī (d. about 256/870), whose treatise On First Philosophy (Fi l-falsafa l-ūlā) was dedicated to the caliph al-Mu'tasim.

Note that Dhū l-Nūn al-Miṣrī (d. 246 or 248/860 or 862), often credited as the first gnostic in Islam, is located in the thirteenth tabaqa of the Siyar (XI, 532-6).

Yahyā b. Yahyā l-Tamīmī, Ibn Rāhawayh, Qutayba b. Sa'īd, and Sa'īd b. Mansūr. This analysis of al-Dhahabī's Siyar a'lām al-nubalā' demonstrates the cultural florescence at the courts and in the hadīth sessions in the mosques during the time of Ibn Sa'd, Ibn Ma'in, and Ibn Hanbal that emanated from Iraq to Egypt in the west and Balkh in the east, and which witnessed the compilation of several great textual achievements of Islamic civilization.

V.3 The minna and its impact upon Sunnī hadīth scholarship

It is necessary that we make one last digression prior to the formal introduction of the three scholars and their primary transmitters whose texts I analyze in the second half of this book. The "inquisition" (mihna) set in motion by the caliph al-Ma'mūn (ruled 198-218/ 813-33) has attracted the attention of several Western scholars over the past century and has achieved an almost mythic status in the literature. After I review briefly the little historical information that has been preserved in the classical Islamic sources about this episode, I shall summarize the main points of Lapidus, Hinds, Nawas, Patton, and Zaman. This section concludes with a reconsideration of the significance of the milna from the hitherto neglected angle of its impact upon hadith scholarship in both the long and short runs of Islamic civilization.

Martin Hinds has assembled the most coherent narrative of the sixteen-to-nineteen-year episode known as the mihna in his article "mihna" in the new edition of the Encyclopaedia of Islam. 123 Only the origins of the minna during the last four months of al-Ma'mūn's life (218/833) can be recovered with any clarity, thanks to al-Tabarī's inclusion of three caliphal letters explaining the goals of this unusual event in his chronicle under the year 218.124 The language of these letters borders on the hysterical, as can be seen in the following two passages:

The Commander of the Faithful considers that these people are the worst of the Muslim community and the chief ones in error, the ones

who are defective in their belief in the divine unity and who have an imperfect share in the faith. They are vessels of ignorance, banners [or milestones, a'lām] of mendaciousness and the tongue of Iblīs, who speaks through his companions and strikes terror into the hearts of his adversaries, the people of God's own religion;125

But by their utterances concerning the Qur'an, these ignorant people have enlarged the breach in their religion and the defect in their trustworthiness; they have made the way easy for the enemy of Islam, and have confessed perversion of the Qur'anic text and heresy against their own hearts; they have made known and described God's work of creation and His action by that form of description which belongs to God alone and have compared Him with it, whereas it is only His creation that is the fitting subject of comparison. 126

The original "test" of the minna was of a strictly theological nature, namely the testimony that the Qur'an was a created text, an opinion shared by numerous early sectarian groups including the Mu'tazila, Khawārij, most of the Zaydiyya and Murji'a, and many of the Imāmī $Sh\bar{\mbox{\scriptsize 1}}$ 'a $(R\bar{\mbox{\scriptsize a}} fida).^{127}$ Al-Ma'mūn struggled to "prove" the createdness of the Qur'an by means of numerous Qur'anic verses in the first and third of his letters, 128 although his argument was handicapped by the absence of any Qur'anic verse in which God explicitly created (khalaga) the Qur'an. 129 The first group of seven hadith scholars subjected to the mihna included both Ibn Sa'd and Ibn Ma'īn, and all of them are reported to have accepted the doctrine of the created Qur'an in Raqqa without a struggle. 130 This outcome was not the case with

¹²³ Martin Hinds, "Mihna," EI2, XII, 2-6.

¹²⁴ C. E. Bosworth (translator), The History of al-Tabari, XXXII: Reunification of the 'Abbāsid Caliphate (Albany: State University of New York Press, 1991), 199-220: Walter Patton, Ahmed ibn Hanbal and the Mihna (Leiden: E. J. Brill, 1897), 56-61.

¹²⁵ Reunification, 203. This excerpt is taken from the first of al-Ma'mūn's mihna

¹²⁶ Reunification, 208. This passage is from the third letter of al-Ma'mūn which purportedly was read to the second group of scholars that included Ibn Hanbal, Outayba b. Sa'īd, and 'Alī b. al-Ja'd.

¹²⁷ Al-Ash'arī, Maqālāt al-Islāmiyyīn, II, 256. Al-Ash'arī reports another thirteen opinions in this chapter on pages 256-9. Melchert makes the interesting suggestion that the Inquisition should be "identified less with the Mu'tazila than with the nascent Hanafi school of law" in his article "The Adversaries of Ahmad Ibn Hanbal," Arabica XLIV.2 (1997), 239.

¹²⁸ Reunification, 199-204 and 205-9; see especially pp. 201 and 207-8.

The closest verb to khalaga in relationship to the "creation" of the Qur'an is ja'ala found in the verse "verily We have made it a Qur'an in the Arabic language" (43:3). Al-Ma'mun cites this verse in his first and third minna letters; Reunification, 201 and 207.

¹³⁰ The remaining five men are Abū Khaythama, 'Abd al-Raḥmān al-Mustamlī (d. 224/839), Ahmad b. Ibrāhīm al-Dawraqī (d. 246/860), and Ismā'īl b. Abī Mas'ūd (death date unknown). These men are names in al-Ma'mūn's brief second letter; Reunification, 204-5; Patton, Ahmed Ibn Hanbal and the Mihna, 64.

the second group of men, a large number of whose identities are unclear, and al-Ma'mūn's fourth letter not only cuts through their elusive answers but even threatens several individuals with the sword should they not answer in strict accordance to the Caliph's dogma.¹³¹ Only two men, Ibn Hanbal and Muhammad b. Nūh, are reported to have adhered to their rejection of the doctrine of the created Our'an after this threatening letter, and were consequently "loaded with fetters" and sent to al-Ma'mūn in Tarsus by Ishāq b. Ibrāhīm. 132 The fifth, and final, mihna letter arrived shortly after Ibn Hanbal's departure and al-Ma'mūn summoned the group of men who had previously passed the test to for further questioning to Tarsus; this trip was aborted near Raqqa at the news of the caliph's death. 133

Virtually nothing is known about the mihna during the nine-year reign of al-Mu'tasim and the five-year one of al-Wāthiq. Al-Tabarī is silent with regard to the infamous flogging of Ibn Hanbal in either 219/834 or 220/835 by al-Mu tasim and his cronies, although it is recorded dutifully by Ibn Hanbal's nephew Hanbal and son Sālih, as well as al-Jāhiz in his epistle on the topic of the createdness of the Qur'an. 134 The only other individuals whom al-Mu'tasim persecuted and whose identities are known are the Egyptians Nu'aym b. Hammād and Yūsuf al-Buwavtī; both men were transported to Baghdad around the year 226/841 where they ultimately died in prison. 135 Hinds has found evidence of an intensification of the mihna under al-Wathiq in Egypt, although the primary victim of this affair in Baghdad, Ahmad b. Nasr al-Khuzā'ī, was more likely executed for his botched insurrection than his belief in an uncreated Qur'an. Even the beating of the master Mālikī scholar Saḥnūn (d. 240/854) in Qayrawan appears to be more a result of local power politics than a serious extension of the mihna. Despite a widespread report that al-Wathig abandoned the doctrine of the created Qur'an after an anonymous Shaykh bested Ibn Abī Duwād in an argument,136

Hinds has argued convincingly that al-Mutawakkil gradually terminated the milna between the years 234/848 and 237/851.137

The predominant trend among Western scholarship has been to interpret this short affair as a watershed moment in Islamic history. The very title of Lapidus' 1975 article, "The Separation of state and religion in the development of early Islamic thought" contains two conceptual categories, namely 'state' and 'religion' whose definitions are far from clear in any period of Islamic civilization and is contradicted by two reports that al-Mutawakkil ordered several prominent hadīth scholars in the year 234/848-9 to disseminate anti-Mu'tazilī hadīth in the congregational mosques of Baghdad and Samarrā' after he had brough the mihna to a close. 138 Hinds' interpretation also ventures into the territory of hyperbole:

[The milna] brought to a decisive end any notion of a caliphal role in the definition of Islam and it permitted the unchecked development of what in due course would become recognizable as Sunnism. The Mu'tazila and what they stood for was discredited, while populist sentiments and what passed as Prophetic hadith were the order of the day. It was now unquestionably the 'ulama', rather than the caliphs, who were "the legatees of the prophets;" and henceforward it would be they who, armed with this spiritual authority, and at a distance from those who held temporal power, elaborated classical Islam. 139

This understanding of the mihna not only contradicts the lengthy historical alliance between Sunnī 'ulamā' and temporal Muslim rulers from at least the period of the Seljuqs (fifth/eleventh century) through the modern day, but also suggests insidiously that Islam transformed from a "rational" religion to one of the vulgar "populists" who traded in "what passed for hadīth" (i.e. spurious goods) and, in a way, stole the role of religious authority from the caliphs. Hinds' lack of appreciation for the massive project of hadīth compilation and criticism,

[&]quot;If they do not then recant and repent of their errors, [al-Ma'mūn] will consign them en bloc to the sword, if God wills;" Reunification, 220.

¹³² Reunification, 220-1.

¹³³ Reunification, 221-2. Al-Tabari reports that Ishāq b. Ibrāhīm set the party free upon their return to Baghdad.

¹³⁴ These accounts are studied by Cooperson in Classical Arabic Biography, 125-8.

¹³⁵ Hinds, "Mihna", 4.

¹³⁶ This story was discussed briefly above in note seven.

¹³⁷ Hinds, "Mihna", 4-5.

¹³⁸ Al-Dhahabī reports that the hadīth scholar Ibn Abī Shawārib (d. 244/858) was present when al-Mutawakkil forbade dialectic theology (kalām) and commanded a group of religious scholars to spread hadīth in Samarrā; Siyar, XI, 104. He also mentions that al-Mutawakkil commissioned Mus'ab b. 'Abdullāh al-Zubayrī, Ishāq b. Abī Isrā'īl, Ibrāhīm b. 'Abdullāh al-Harawī, and the brothers Abū Bakr and 'Uthmān Ibn Abī Shayba to spread hadīth that "refuted the Mu'tazila and Jahmiyya" in the year 234/848-9; Siyar, XI, 125. Al-Dhahabi's source for this report is Ibrāhīm Niftawayh.

¹³⁹ Hinds, "Mihna", 6.

the elucidation of which is the goal of this book, is not unusual for many Western scholars raised on the theories of Goldziher and Schacht that were mentioned in the first chapter, and these interpretive shortcomings do not in any way diminish the fruits of the labor Hinds undertook to provide what is probably the most accurate narrative of the events of the mihna currently in circulation.

A particularly unbalanced presentation of these events is found in the article "The Mihna of 218/833 Revisited: An empirical study" by John Nawas. 140 Although the article is concerned fundamentally with the question as to the strategic motives behind al-Ma'mūn's decision to undertake the mihna in the first place, it fails to offer any form of critique of al-Ma'mūn's arguments and authority. For example, Nawas writes:

The traditionists were a threat. Al-Ma'mūn saw them sowing the seeds of destruction, menacing for who they were, for what they had come to be within the social fabric, and for the kinds of activitivies they were carrying out. The sheer numbers of these self-appointed spokesmen for Islam, involved in an enterprise to which they had not been commissioned and without any control from above, made them a force no ruler could afford to ignore. The traditionists were no ordinary men harmlessly busying themselves within the confines of ivory towers but "deluded . . . deprayed . . . untrustworthy . . . heretics . . . the tongue of Iblīs (the devil) . . . making a pretense of piety and knowledge" in order to "lead the masses astray"—expressions continuously used by the caliph in his mihna letters . . . 141

Nawas follows this vivid depiction of al-Ma'mūn's perception of the "menacing" hadīth scholars with the rather remarkable assertion that the caliph "ordered the mihna in order to acquire the authority of the sharia, to secure for himself and future caliphs unquestioned supremacy on issues of faith."142 Nowhere does Nawas seek to under-

stand the true nature of the project of the hadīth scholars or ascertain the validity of al-Ma'mūn's accusation that they were seeking political authority at the expense of the caliph. Nor does he address the simple fact that one is hard pressed to find a caliph after 'Umar b. 'Abd al-'Azīz (d. 101/720) who devoted serious attention to Islamic law. 143 If a century of caliphs prior to al-Ma'mūn showed little active involvement in the actual articulation of Islamic law,144 should not pious Muslims have been grateful that at least the "self-appointed spokesmen for Islam," such as hadīth scholars and jurists, were converting the teachings of the Prophet and first generations into books arranged by legal topics? And who was al-Ma'mūn to demand obedience to the caliph when he himself had raised a military insurrection against the caliph al-Amīn, his own brother, who was killed at the hands of his general Tāhir? None of these issues is raised by Nawas who, in his enthusiasm to solve the riddle of the mihna, overlooks entirely the constructive role of hadith scholars in the articulation of Sunnī Islam, and offers little evidence to balance al-Ma'mūn's paranoid perspective of these men. 145

¹⁴⁰ John Nawas, "The Mihna of 218/833 Revisited: An empirical study," JAOS 116.4 (1996), 698-708. Many of the ideas found in this article are also present in Nawas' "A Reexamination of Three Current Explanations for al-Ma'mun's Introduction of the Mihna," IJMES 26 (1994), 615-29.

[&]quot;The minna of 218/833 revisited," 705-6. Note also Nawas' earlier observation that "Had [the] authority [of the 'ulamā'] continued unchecked, it would eventually have led to a 'house divided' and a caliphal institution adrift. Endowed by God with authority over all that concerned Muslims, it was only a caliph who was entitled to exercise it;" "A Reexamination of Three Current Explanations for al-Ma'mun's Introduction of the Mihna," 622.

^{142 &}quot;The Mihna of 218/833 Revisited," 708. While al-Nawas' argument that the

primary goal of the mihna was to strengthen the caliphal authority is more convincing than the "Mu'tazilite/Shi'ite genre of hypotheses," it must be admitted that al-Ma'mun made a strikingly poor selection of interrogatees, since Nawas was able to find information on merely twenty-eight of the purported "hundreds" of men subjected to the mihna. Clearly al-Ma'mun missed many of the best and brightest hadith scholars! How Nawas arrives at the number of victims of the milina in the "hundreds" is also a mystery, since he does not offer any source for this figure in either article.

¹⁴³ Ibn Sa'd's entry for 'Umar b. 'Abd al-'Azīz is the longest notice in al-Țabaqāt al-kabīr and includes many of his legal opinions; al-Tabaqāt al-kubrā, V, 160-206. See also Crone and Hinds, God's Caliph, 73-80.

¹⁴¹ Crone and Hinds argue for caliphal intervention on legal issues in God's Caliph, but they muster little evidence post-Umar b. 'Abd al-'Azīz; note that the caliph Hishām (ruled 724-43) is mentioned only four times in the entire book. For the "surprisingly nonchalant" attitude of the early 'Abbasids towards the development of the shari'a, see ibid., 80-93.

Note also that Nawas' suggestion that the "daunting task" of establishing standards for the authentification of hadith was "shouldered largely by the four emerging schools of jurisprudence" and that the primary tool wielded by these men was consensus (ijmā') is puzzling since there is little evidence to suggest that most jurists were concerned with hadith criticism in any of the classical sources examined in this book. While it is true that Mālik and especially Ibn Hanbal were involved in hadīth criticism, it is striking that none of the jurists whom Melchert has identified as founders of the three Eastern madhāhib (Ibn Surayi, al-Khallāl, and al-Karkhī) played any discernable role in the disciplines of hadith criticism.

This cursory survey of a few somewhat dramatic Western interpretations of the mihna demonstrates vividly the insights of Walter Patton and Muhammad Qasim Zaman. The former, who, over a century ago observed that, "as an attempt to stamp out by force moral convictions, [the mihna] was a failure from the start"146 evaluated the entire ordeal in the following manner:

Judging from a modern point of view neither side had very strong points; but, judged from a Muslim standpoint, the disputations . . . show that the orthodox147 had the great argument of the Word of God and the tradition and could wield these as well or better than their opponents.148

While Patton's sensitive reading of these events may have fallen out of favor during the past three decades, Zaman's careful study of the complex relationships between the caliphate and the religious scholars is a critical contribution to this discussion. Zaman traces the webs of 'Abbāsid patronage of the "proto-Sunnī" elite during this period and observes that

al-Ma'mūn's Mihna ought to be seen not as the culmination of a struggle over religious authority between the caliphs and the 'ulama', but only as an interregnum which disturbed but did not destroy, and in its failure only reaffirmed, the earlier pattern of state-'ulama' relations. 149

The sole remaining task in this book related to the mihna is to ascertain the impact of this event upon the greater narrative of Sunnī hadīth scholarship. One of the most striking outcomes of the entire mihna episode is that none of the hadīth scholars who acknowledged the createdness of the Qur'an under the threat of caliphal punishment suffered any discernable loss of prestige or integrity in the eyes of their pupils. Four of the scholars who were tried by al-Ma'mūn transmitted hadīth that are found in all six of the canonical Sunnī books, 150 and another eleven contributed material to at least one of

these books. 151 Two of the most important hadith-transmitter critics of the age. Ibn Ma'īn and 'Alī b. al-Madīnī, retained their authoritative status in this discipline despite their lack of endurance in the face of caliphal pressure and intimidation. 152 Finally, it is important to note that the mihna did not even graze Basra, the city we have shown to have been of major significance for hadith scholarship during this period, and there is little evidence that it had any success in the Eastern lands from where the greatest Sunnī hadīth scholars were emerging at this time.

While the mihna did not affect the reputations of individual hadīth scholars, it did have both an immediate positive and negative impact upon this group of men. The positive change was the fame that Ibn Hanbal received which paralleled in many ways the elevation of Mālik b. Anas whose prestige increased less than a century earlier in the wake of a sound whipping for his unwillingness to give the oath of allegiance to the caliph al-Mansūr. 153 Although most of the

¹⁴⁶ Patton, 124

By "orthodox" Patton means the hadith scholars in general, and Ibn Ḥanbal in particular.

¹⁴⁸ Patton, 125–6.

¹⁴⁹ Zaman, 11.

¹⁵⁰ These four men are Abū Mushir 'Abd al-A'lā, Ibu Ḥanbal, Qutayba b. Sa'īd, and Sa'duwayh according to al-Dhahabi's Siyar. Note that Nawas (703) states that there are five such scholars, but neglects to disclose their indentities; a perusal of the twenty-eight men reveals that Ibn Ma'in was considered to have material in

all six books according to Ibn Ḥajar (Taqrīb, 527) pace al-Dhahabī, who reports that he contributed hadith only to the books of al-Bukhārī, Muslim, and Abū Dāwūd; Siyar, XI, 71.

These men are Abū Naṣr al-Tammār (M, N), Abū Khaythama (B, M, D, N, O), 'Abd al-Rahmān b. Yūnus al-Mustamlī (B), Ahmad b. Ibrāhīm al-Dawraqī (M, D, T, Q), 'Alī b. al-Ja'd (B, D), 'Āṣim b. 'Alī al-Wāṣiṭī (B, T, Q), al-Ḥaṣan b. Hammād al-Sajjāda (D, N, Q), Ishāq b. Abī Isrā'īl Ibrāhīm (D, N), Ismā'īl b. Ibrāhīm al-Harawī (B, N), Muḥammad b. Ḥātim (M, D), 'Ubayd Allāh b. 'Umar al-Qawārīrī (B, M, D, N), and Ibn Ma'īn (all six). Nawas alludes to one more scholar whose materials are in one of the six books, but since he does not name these individuals, it is not clear exactly whom he means; my personal hypothesis is that it is Ibn Sa'd, since I have already mentioned in a footnote that al-Mizzī and Ibn Hajar count his non-hadīth report found in the Sunan of Abū Dāwūd but al-Dhahabi does not.

¹⁵² It is not clear when 'Alī b. al-Madīnī's inquisition took place, but it is certain that he aided the caliph and received a handsome stipend from the chief judge Ibn Abī Duwād; Patton, 87 and Siyar, X, 400-2. Al-Dhahabī also disproves an anonymous rumor on the authority of 'Abdullah b. Ahmad b. Hanbal that Ibn Hanbal did not transmit any hadīth from 'Alī after the mihna by the fact that many of 'Alī's hadīth are found in the Musnad; Siyar, XI, 59. Note also Hurvitz's wildlyoff the mark assertions that "the tragic downfall of Ibn al-Madīnī . . . illustrates how the mihna crushed the intellectual leadership of the Traditionists" and that "after the mihna, his career was in shambles;" Hurvitz, The Formation of Hanbalism: Pietv into Power (London: Routledge Curzon, 2002), 151. Given the importance of Ibn al-Madīnī's hadīth to al-Bukhārī (nearly 300 hadīth in the Sahīh) and his critical opinions to Ibn Abī Hātim, this interpretation is clearly untenable.

¹⁵³ Ibn Sa'd reports this episode on the authority of al-Wāqidī, who may have been an eye-witness to Mālik's beating at the hands of al-Mansūr's governor Ja'far b. Sulaymān; al-Tabagāt al-kubrā, V, 289.

fame of both of these men must be credited to their vast learning and the texts that were sculpted from their teachings by their most dedicated pupils,154 their extraordinary will in the face of torture surely impressed those Muslims who were not particularly interested in the acquisition of copious amounts of hadīth.

The negative outcome of this brief ordeal was the result of two rival positions with regard to the implications of the dogma that the Qur'an is uncreated. 155 Al-Dhahabī elucidates the argument that split the Sunnī hadīth scholars into three camps, two of which were considered by him to be sound, in his entry for 'Alī b. Huir in the Siyar: 156

The vast majority of the Imams, pious ancestors, and succeeding generations are of the opinion that the Our'an is the speech of God, sent down (munazzal) and uncreated . . . The Jahmiyya, Mu'tazila, [Caliph] al-Ma'mūn, [Judge] Ahmad b. Abī Duwād, and a group of the speculative theologians and Imamī Shī'a (Rāfida) are of the opinion that the Qur'an is the speech of God, sent down, and created ... then a group (tā'ifa) emerged that believed that the Qur'an was the speech of God, exalted, sent down, and uncreated, but that our enunciations of it are created. In other words, their utterances, voices, writing, and the like [are created]. This was the opinion of Husayn al-Karābīsī and his followers, and was rejected by Ibn Hanbal and the Imams of hadith. It is true that Ibn Hanbal said "[the adherents of this doctrine] (i.e. the Lafziyya) are Jahmīs!" A group that included Dāwūd al-Zāhirī also said that the Qur'an is an event (muhdath), and Ibn Hanbal labeled them innovators... As for al-Bukhārī, one of the greatest and most

156 Siyar, XI, 510-11.

intelligent scholars, he said: "I am not of the opinion that our speech of the Our'an is created, but rather their (sic) movements, voices, and actions are created; the Our'an that is heard, recited, articulated, and written in the books is the uncreated speech of God." Al-Bukhārī composed a book explaining this position entitled Af'āl al-'ibād, 157 but a group of scholars who did not understand it rejected it. [These scholars included] al-Dhuhlī, Abū Zur'a [al-Rāzī], Abū Hātim [al-Rāzī], and Abū Bakr al-A'yan. 158 Then the Kullābiyya emerged, followed by the Ash'arīs; they argued that the Our'an was a self-sufficient concept $(ma^c n\bar{a})$... and they expanded the topics related to this and attached more and more issues and shades (alwan) to the point that abandoning [this topic]. By God, is what is best for one's faith!

I have already mentioned the tension that this doctrine caused between al-Dhuhlī and Muslim b. al-Ḥajjāj in Nishapur in the third chapter, and it, like the misunderstanding between the master hadīth critics in Rayy and al-Bukhārī, appears to have been of little importance to the succeeding generations of scholars who happily copied the books of all of these scholars and worried little about theological hairsplitting with regard to the speech of God.

It has been necessary to address the episode of the mihna in this book due to the historical significance several Western scholars have vested in it. Relatively few of the prominent hadīth scholars outside of Baghdad whom we have discussed appear to have been targeted, and those who did affirm the createdness of the Qur'an under obvious coercion maintained their integrity in the eyes of their pupils and successive generations of hadīth scholars. Even the myriad opinions of hadīth-transmitter critics Ibn Ma'īn and 'Alī b. al-Madīnī have retained their authorative aura to this day. The only obvious damage caused by the mihna to the hadīth scholars was the deaths of Abū Mushir, Nu'aym b. Hammād, and al-Buwaytī in prison, as well as the rift described by al-Dhahabī between al-Dhuhlī, Abū Hātim al-Rāzī, and Abū Zur'a al-Rāzī on one side and al-Bukhārī and Muslim on the other. This cleavage, however, was short-lived and far easier to bridge than the one that persists to this day between

¹⁵⁴ It is not an exaggeration to state that the Muwatta' and the Musnad have remained two of the most important religious Sunnī books for the better part of Islamic civilization.

¹⁵⁵ Melchert has suggested a much more serious effect of the minna affair, namely the split between the aṣḥāb al-ra'y and the aṣḥāb al-ḥadīth due to the fact that the doctrine of the created Qur'an was "promulgated by Hanafi jurisprudents in the time of Abū Yūsuf and after his death;" The Formation of the Sunni Schools of Law, 8. He is quite cautious about this suggestion and devotes little more than a paragraph to it. This thesis is also suggested in his article "The Adversaries of Ahmad ibn Hanbal," although he adds the rather inchoate group of the "semi-rationalists," several of whom he indentifies among the Lafziyya, as another target of the wrath of the "traditionalist party." In a similar vein, Hurvitz attributes the split of the "traditionist camp" into 1) Hanbalī minimalists and 2) Shāfi'īs to the trauma of the milna; The Formation of Hanbalism, 156. His study demonstrates the perils of ignoring the hadith scholars who were uninterested in joining any madhhab and instead produced some of the most authoritative books of the Sunnī tradition during this time.

¹⁵⁷ This book has been published: Khalq af āl al-'ibād wa-l-radd 'alā al-Jahmiyya waaṣḥāb al-ta'tīl, ed. Abū Muḥammad al-Salafī and Abū Ḥajar al-Ibyānī (Cairo: Maktabat al-Turāth al-Islāmī, 1988).

¹⁵⁸ His remark denigrating al-Bukhārī is the entire reason for al-Dhahabī's excursus at this juncture on the different opinions concerning the nature of the Our'an; Siyar, XI, 509.

the Sunnī proponents of speculative theology (the Ash'arīs and Mātūrīdīs) and the hadīth-scholar Sunnīs, like al-Dhahabī, who recommend that the pious Muslim direct his or her energies towards the study of the Qur'an and hadith and away from speculative theology. It is to be hoped that the insignificance of the mihna with respect to hadīth scholarship has been demonstrated in a convincing manner, and that future research on the first half of the second/ninth century will focus more on the emergence of the Sunnī articulation Islam in places outside of the palaces of al-Ma'mūn and the pages of al-Tabarī's chronicle.

V.4 Biographical sketches of Ibn Sa'd, Ibn Ma'īn, and Ibn Hanbal and their primary transmitter-pupils

The preceding pages should have convinced even the most skeptical reader of the significance of Ibn Sa'd, Ibn Ma'īn, and Ibn Hanbal in the epic venture of Sunnī hadīth scholarship. Ibn al-Ṣalāḥ advocates the importance of the books of Ibn Hanbal and Ibn Sa'd in categories 28, 63, and 65 of his Muqaddima, and al-Dhahabī includes all three of these scholars in the eighth tabaqa of Tadhkirat al-huffaz. Ibn Ma'īn and Ibn Hanbal were consistently ranked among the most important hadith-transmitter critics in the relevant sources I studied in the second chapter, and Ibn Sa'd's al-Tabaqat al-kabīr was considered by al-Mizzī to be one of the ten primary sources of critical opinions. The consensus of the primacy of the critical opinions of Ibn Ma'īn and Ibn Hanbal was rendered all the more impressive by our prosopographical study of the eleventh and twelfth tabaqāt of al-Dhahabī's Siyar a'lām al-nubalā' that revealed the vast network of hadith scholars who were their contemporaries and did not achieve their level of erudition in the disciplines of hadīth criticism. The remaining pages of this chapter provide brief biographical sketches of these three extraordinary scholars, along with the primary transmitter-pupils of their books that I shall be subjecting to a careful examination in the remaining chapters of this study.

V.4.1 Muhammad b. Sa'd b. Manī' Kātib al-Wāqidī, Husayn b. Fahm, and al-Hārith b. Abī Usāma

Very little information has survived about Ibn Sa'd's life. 159 He was born around the year 168/784 in Basra and traveled to Baghdad to serve as a scribe for the prominent historian and judge Muhammad b. 'Umar al-Wāqidī and died there in 230/845. Ibn Sa'd was a mawlā either of Banū Hāshim or Banū Zuhrā, and is thus called occasionally al-Hāshimī or al-Zuhrī. His primary teachers included historians (akhbārīs) such al al-Wāqidī, 'Alī b. al-Madā'inī, and Hishām b. al-Kalbī, as well as major hadīth scholars, including Ibn 'Uyayna, Wakī' b. al-Jarrāh, Abū Nu'aym al-Fadl b. Dukayn, Abū l-Walīd al-Tavālisī, and 'Affān b. Muslim. He was evaluated by Abū Hātim al-Rāzī as "truthful" (yaşduqu),160 classified by al-Khaţīb al-Baghdādī as being among the "people of virtue and knowledge" (ahl al-fadl wa l-'ilm) as well as "the people of probity" (ahl al-'adāla), 161 and al-Dhahabī lauded him as no less than a hāfiz, great scholar ('allāma), and authority (hujja). 162 These positive opinions further support the argument in the preceding section regarding the insignificance of the mihna vis-à-vis hadīth scholarship since Ibn Sa'd was among the first group of seven who assented to al-Ma'mūn's doctrine of the created Qur'an without protest in 218/833.163

Ibn Sa'd's primary contribution to Islamic civilization is unquestionably his book al-Tabagāt al-kabīr, a work which inspired even the erudite al-Dhahabī to remark "whoever looks through [it] is humbled by his knowledge."164 The first section of the book is concerned

¹⁵⁹ The two primary sources for this information are al-Khatīb, Tārīkh Baghdād, V, 321-2 and al-Dhahabī, Siyar, X, 664-6. An exhaustive collection of the classical references to Ibn Sa'd (as well as a list of 99 of his teachers) can be found in Muhammad Sulamī's edition of the fifth tabaga of the sahāba of al-Tabagāt al-kubrā, I (Tā'if, 1993) 19-58. See also J. W. Fück's article "Ibn Sa'd" in the EI2, III, 922 - 3.

¹⁶⁰ Ibn Abī Ḥātim, Kītāb al-jarh wa l-ta'dīl, VII, 262. He also adds "I saw him go to al-Qawārīrī and ask him for hadīth." Note that Ibn Abī Hātim has the incorrect death date (236 instead of 230) for Ibn Sa'd in this entry.

¹⁶¹ Tārīkh Baghdād, V, 321.

¹⁶² Siyar, X, 664-5.

¹⁶³ One of the only other anecdotes related to Ibn Sa'd preserved in Tārīkh Baghdād is that Ibn Hanbal would sent a pupil over to his house each Friday to borrow two sections (juz'ān) of al-Wāqidī's hadīth in order to compare them with his own, presumably sound, materials; Tārīkh Baghdād, V, 322.

¹⁶⁴ wa man nazara fi l-tabaqāti khada'a li-'ilmihi; Siyar, X, 665. The only other book

with the biography of the Prophet Muhammad and is of little importance for this study. 165 The second section consists of 1389 biographies of male sahāba arranged into five classes according to the time of each individual's conversion to Islam, and it is important to note that the text of the fourth and fifth classes has been published only in the past decade. 166 The third section proceeds generation by generation in each of the major Muslim cities, starting with Medina and ending with al-Andalus, and mentions 3513 men. The last section contains 629 biographies of women, most of whom are sahāba, and includes several legal and exegetical opinions of al-Wāqidī regarding feminine topics, such as veiling and beating. The book lacks a formal introduction, but Ibn Sa'd does inform the reader at the beginning of the sahāba section that he has assembled

the names we have acquired of the companions of the Messenger of God among the Muhājirūn, the Anṣār, and others. [It also includes] their sons and followers among the people of figh, knowledge [of the sunnal ('ilm), and transmission of hadith. [It encompasses] that which has reached us concerning their full names, genealogies, kunyās, and attributes, generation by generation.¹⁶⁷

Ibn Sa'd follows this brief introduction with isnāds from nine prominent teachers whose material was of capital importance for al-Tabagāt al-kabīr. The first seven isnāds all begin with al-Wāqidī and trace back to his various Medinan sources, including one that passes through al-Zuhrī to 'Urwa b. al-Zubayr. Ibn Sa'd received the maghāzī materials of Abū Ma'shar from al-Husayn b. Bahrām (d. 213 or 214/828-9), 168

165 Al-Tabaqāt al-kubrā, volumes I (sīra) and II (maghāzī).

those of Mūsā b. 'Uqba from Ismā'īl b. Abī Uways (d. 216/831), 169 and obtained two recensions of the maghāzī materials of Ibn Ishāq. 170 Ibn Sa'd also makes mention of the written materials of 'Abdullah b. Muhammad al-Ansārī (d. around 200/815),171 Abū Nucaym al-Fadl b. Dukayn, Ma'n b. 'Īsā (d. 198/814),172 and Hishām b. Muhammad al-Kalbī¹⁷³ before concluding that

All of these men informed me (akhbaranī) of the names of the companions of the Messenger of God # and those who came after them among the tābi'ūn among the people of figh and who transmitted any hadith. I have gathered all of this and have made clear all those whose names I know in their proper places. 174

It has taken nearly a century to arrive at an edition of Ibn Sa'd's al-Ṭabaqāt al-kabīr that is even close to being complete. The first Leiden edition was the product of a veritable "dream team" of

of Ibn Sa'd's to survive is his Kītāb al-tabagāt al-saghīr that remains in a sixth-century manuscript in the Istanbul Archaeology Museum (#435); GAS, I, 301.

The fourth tabaga of the sahāba was first published by 'Abd al-'Azīz Salāmī in 1995 in Ta'if; the fifth one was published by Dr. Muhammad al-Sulamī in 1993, also in Ta'if. Note that only the 2001 Maktabat al-Khānjī edition has the entire third tabaga of sahāba in the fifth volume, and that all figures are based upon this edition. See below for the complicated publishing history of this book.

¹⁶⁷ tasmiyatu man ahsaynā min ashābi rasūli llāhi 🙇 min al-muhājirīna wa l-ansāri wa gharihim wa man kana ba'dahum min abna'ihim wa atba'ihim min ahli l-fighi wa l-'ilmi wa l-riwāyati li-l-hadīthi wa mā intahā ilaynā min asmā'ihim wa ansābihim wa kunāhum wa sifātihim tabaqatan tabaqatan; al-Tabaqāt al-kubrā, III, 5.

¹⁶⁸ His full name is Abū Ahmad Husayn b. Muhammad b. Bahrām al-Marrūdhī al-Mu'addib and he settled in Baghdad. His hadīth are found in all six of the canonical Sunnī books, and Ibn Sa'd evaluated him as thiqa; Siyar, X, 216-7; al-Tabaqāt al-kubrā, VII, 165.

¹⁶⁹ A Medinan scholar and nephew of Mālik b. Anas of the eleventh tabaqa whom al-Dhahabī remarks is merely sadūq hāfiz; Siyar, X, 391-5. His hadīth are found in the Sahīhs of al-Bukhārī and Muslim.

These recensions are from Ibn Ishāq's pupils Hārūn b. Abī 'Ĭsā and Ibrāhīm b. Sa'd (d. 183/799). Little is known about Hārūn except that he was a scribe of Ibn Ishāq and that a single hadīth of his is found in the Sunan of al-Nasā'ī; al-Mizzī, Tahdhīb al-Kamāl, XXX, 102-3. Ibrāhīm b. Sa'd, a great-grandson of the famous sahābī 'Abd al-Rahmān b. 'Awf, was a prominent Medinan hadīth scholar whose transmissions are located in all six of the canonical Sunnī books and who moved to Baghdad where he and Hushaym b. Bashīr flourished at the end of their lives; Siyar, VIII, 304-8; Tadhkira, 185-6. Ibn Sa'd does not explicitly say he received a book called al-Maghāzī from any of these scholars, but it is obvious in his sections of the sahāba that he is making a 'critical edition' of sorts in his effort to clarify the names of the men who fought in each of the definitive early Muslim battles. Ibn Sa'd makes explicit reference to Mūsā b. 'Uqba's "book" in the entries of 'Abdullāh b. Qays b. Şayfī and 'Amr b. Talq b. Zayd (al-Tabagāt al-kubrā, III, 295) and the "book of Abu Ma'shar" in the entry of Yazīd b. al-Muzayn b. Oays (ibid., III, 277).

Ibn Sa'd mentions "the book we wrote (katabnā) of al-Anṣārī" in the entry of Thābit b. Khanasā'; al-Tabaqāt al-kubrā, III, 266. Al-Anṣārī's book is also mentioned in the entries of al-Nu'mān b. Mālik and Mālik b. 'Amr al-Najjārī; ibid., III, 281 and 316.

¹⁷² Al-Dhahabī, Tadhkira, I, 242-3. Ma'n was an important pupil of Mālik b. Anas and Abū Hātim preferred him to Ibn Wahb.

¹⁷³ Ibn al-Kalbī's book Kītāb al-nasab is explicitly mentioned in the entry of Khawlī b. Abī Khawlī; al-Tabaqāt al-kubrā, III, 209. Ibn al-Nadīm reports that Ibn Sa'd was a transmitter of this book; Fibrist, 111. (My thanks to Professor Wadad al-Qadi for this reference.)

¹⁷⁴ fa-kullu ha'ulā'i qad akhbaranī fī tasmiyati ashābi rasūli llāhi 🛎 wa man kāna ba'dahum min al-tābi'īna min ahli l-fiqhi wa l-riwāyati li-l-hadīth bi-shay'in fa-jama'tu dhālika kullahu wa bayyantu man amkanani tasmiyatuhu minhum fi mawdi'ih; al-Tabagat al-kubra. III, 5.

German orientalists over the years 1904-40 under the leadership of Edward Sachau. This edition lacked much of the second and third tabagāt of sahāba, the entire fourth and fifth tabagāt of the sahāba (390 entries), as well as an important section that includes 409 scholars of Medina. This edition was republished without its thorough indices in Beirut (1960-8) under the name of Ihsān 'Abbās without any of the missing sections. The lacuna of the Medinan scholars was published by Zivād Muḥammad Mansūr in Medina in 1983 (and again in 1987), and this material was incorporated into the "disastrous" Dār al-Kutub al-Ilmivva edition of 1990. The fifth tabaga of the sahāba was published in two volumes in 1993 by Muhammad al-Sulamī and the fourth tabaga of sahāba followed two years later thanks to the labors of 'Abd al-'Azīz al-Salāmī. The primary edition used for much of this study is the uncritical and unindexed 1995-96 Dar Ihyā' al-Turāth al-'Arabī edition that includes everything except the lacunae of the second and third tabaqāt of the sahāba, the thirty-six entries of the fifth tabaga of the sahāba, and a tiny gap in the fifth tabaga of Medinan scholars. 176 Finally, Dr. 'Alī Muḥammad 'Umar has just published the first complete and critical edition of this text under the title Kītāb al-tabagāt al-kabīr in Cairo in ten volumes with a highly-appreciated index. 177 This authoritative version is based upon five fragmentary manuscripts and the editor has devoted extra care to avoid the numerous orthographical errors that he states plague all of the earlier editions. 178

The life of one of the primary transmitters of Ibn Sa'd's *al-Ṭabaqāt al-kabīr*, Ibn Fahm, is largely unknown.¹⁷⁹ His full name is al-Ḥusayn

b. Muḥammad b. 'Abd al-Raḥmān b. Fahm al-Baghdādī and he lived from 211/826 until 289/902. Al-Dhahabī describes him as a hāfiz, genealogist, and historian (akhbārī) and includes among his teachers Muḥammad b. Sallām al-Jumaḥī, Ibn Ma'īn, Abū Khaythama and his primary teacher Ibn Sa'd. Al-Khaṭīb al-Baghdādī includes the observation that Ibn Fahm was thiqa but extremely reluctant to transmit hadīth to anyone who did not spend a lengthy period of time with him. He also reports that al-Dāraquṭnī declared Ibn Fahm's transmissions to be worthless (laysa bi-shay'), and a report from Qādī Alḥmad b. Kāmil quotes Ibn Fahm's description of his education:

I was a pupil of Ibn Maʿīn, from whom I learned isnād criticism (maʿri-fat al-rijāl), and Muṣʿab b. ʿAbdullāh [al-Zubayrī], from whom I learned genealogy, and Abū Khaythama, from whom I obtained Prophetic hadīth (or his book al-Musnad), and al-Ḥasan b. Ḥammād Sajjāda, from whom I obtained figh. 180

Qāḍī Alimad b. Kāmil is one of the few pupils of Ibn Fahm identified by either al-Khaṭīb al-Baghdādī or al-Dhahabī, and it seems possible that Ibn Fahm may very well have disappeared from the pages of history had it not been for his association with Ibn Sa'd's magnum opus.

The life of the transmitter of the recension of al-Ṭabaqāt al-kabīr that has survived to this day, al-Ḥārith b. Muḥammad b. Abī Usāma (d. 282/895), is nearly as obscure as that of Ibn Fahm. 181 Al-Ḥārith is most famous for his unique musnad, that was arranged neither on the basis of saḥāba nor legal topics (abwāb), and must have been a challenge for even the most expert ḥadīth scholars. 182 He lived nearly one hundred years, studied with Yazīd b. Hārūn, al-Wāqidī, and 'Affān b. Muslim, and counted al-Ṭabarī among his pupils. Ibn Ḥibbān include him among the reliable transmitters (thiqāt), al-Dāraquṭnī graded him as sincere (sadūq), and al-Dhahabī scolds Abū l-Fatḥ al-Azdī for labeling him ḍaʿīf. Al-Ḥārith's reputation suffered

¹⁷³ This edition has been thoroughly condemned by the editor of the 2001 edition of *al-Ṭabaqāt al-kabīr*, Dr. ʿAlī Muḥammad ʿUmar, in the introduction to his new edition (see note 177).

 $^{^{176}}$ This lacuna consists of two important Hāshimīs, namely Ja'far b. Muḥammad al-Ṣādiq and Jbrāhīm b. Muḥammad b. 'Alī "the Imām" and is found only in the 2001 Cairo edition, VII, 543–5.

¹⁷⁷ This edition was published by Maktabat al-Khānjī in Cairo in 2001; I refer to this edition as TK 2001.

 $^{^{178}}$ It is curious that he does not mention the Dār Iḥyā al-Turāth al-'Arabī edition that I have used in parts of this study.

¹⁷⁹ The primary source for this sketch is *Tārīkh Baghdād*, VIII, 92–3; al-Dhahabī does not add anything to al-Khaṭīb al-Baghdādī's material in either the *Siyar* (XIII, 427–8) or the *Tadhkīra* (II, 182). Note that none of the published editions of *al-Ţabaqāt al-kabīr* is based upon the transmission of Ibn Fahm; rather they are all from the rececension of al-Ḥārith b. Muḥammad b. Abī Usāma (d. 282/895), whom we shall encounter shortly. This rescension was also the only one available to al-Dhahabī and Ibn Ḥajar, among others; "Ibn Sa'd", *El2*, III, 922

¹⁸⁰ Tārīkh Baghdād, VIII, 93; Siyar, XIII, 428.

¹⁸¹ The information in this biographical sketch comes from al-Khaṭīb, *Tārīkh Baghdād*, VIII, 218–9 and al-Dhahabī, *Siyar*, XIII, 388–90. The bulk of al-Khaṭīb's entry concerns al-Ḥārith's teachers, pupils and correct genealogy.

¹⁸² This musnad was later transmitted from al-Ḥārith's student Abū Bakr b. Khallād (d. 359/970) to the famous hadīth scholar Abū Nu'aym al-Isbahānī; Siyar XVII, 462. Ibn Ḥajar includes a fragment (muntaqā) of this recension in al-Matālib al-ʿāliya (II, 58–9).

from his practice of receiving money for hadīth, and al-Dhahabī pardons him for this practice due to his financial destitution. 183 Despite this exoneration, al-Dhahabī does include several verses of a poem by Muhammad b. Khalad al-Marzubān that lambast his willingness to accept a fee for his hadīth. 184

V.4.2 Yahyā b. Ma'īn and 'Abbā's b. Muhammad al-Dūrī

The vast majority of the information of relevance to the life of Ibn Ma'īn (158/775-233/848) is limited to his pursuit of hadīth scholarship. 185 Yahyā b. Ma'īn b. 'Awn b. Ziyād b. Bistām was a mawlā whose family originated from either Sarakhs or al-Anbar. His father is reported to have been a scribe for a governor of Tabaristan and Rayy named 'Abdullāh b. Mālik during the time of Hārūn al-Rashīd and was later promoted to the supervisor of the kharāj of Rayy. Ibn Ma'īn is said to have inherited a million and fifty thousand dirhams from his father, all of which he spent in pursuit of his hadīth studies. Ahmad Muhammad Nur Sayf has identified eight journeys made by Ibn Ma'in in his quest for hadith in his study Yahyā b. Ma'in wa kitābuhu l-Tārīkh. 186 The earliest of these trips was to Kufa and Basra to hear Wakī' b. al-Jarrāh and may have taken place when Ibn Ma'īn was about eighteen years old. He traveled to Basra in 187/803 and heard material from al-Mu'tamir b. Sulayman a year prior to the latter's death, and to Yemen in 192/808 with Ibn Hanbal to study with 'Abd al-Razzāg al-San'ānī. Ibn Ma'īn is reported to have had a small altercation in Kufa with Abū Nu'aym al-Fadl b. Dukayn,

¹⁸⁴ Although Ibn Sa'd is not listed among al-Hārith's teachers by al-Dhahabī, he is mentioned in the fourth verse of this fragment of poetry along with Yazīd [b. Hārūn], al-Wāqidī, Rawh [b. 'Ubāda], and al-Qa'nabī; Siyar, XIII, 390.

186 Nūr Sayf, I, 52-4.

who did not appreciate being tested by the young traveler, and went to Rayy prior to 200/815-6 to benefit from the erudition of Jarīr b. 'Abd al-Hamīd. Ibn Ma'īn's itinerary also included a visit to Wāsit with his disciple 'Abbas al-Dūrī in order to hear hadīth from the master scholar Yazīd b. Hārūn. Nūr Sayf reports that Ibn Ma'īn went to Harran and Massisa, and spent two years in Egypt (213-4/ 828-9) prior to his entry into Damascus and visits to Hims (214/829). Ibn Ma'īn's last journey was to Mecca for the pilgrimage, but he died while in Medina, and his body was carried upon the bier of the Prophet out of honor for his lifelong devotion to the purification of the literature concerned with the preservation of prophetic locutions and practices.

There have been few hadīth scholars who transmitted a smaller percentage of the hadīth that they accumulated than Ibn Ma'īn. This discrepancy was due partly to the sheer volume of the material that he collected, which was said at his death to have filled thirty satchels (qimtar) and twenty vessels (hubb). 187 This practice was one of the primary means employed by Ibn Ma'in for hadith criticism, as great numbers of variants of an individual hadīth text (matn) enabled him to detect peculiarities of individual transmitters. Another anecdote that sheds light on Ibn Ma'in's critical technique and enormous volume of compilation is the report that he copied the unreliable sahīfa of 'Abd al-Razzāg → Ma'mar → Abān b. Abī 'Ayyāsh → Anas b. Mālik in order to verify that unscrupulous scholars did not change the problematic "Abān" in the isnād to the reliable "Thābit." There is another report that he heard the hadīth of Hammād b. Salama from eighteen different scholars, and that he preferred the transmission of al-Tabūdhakī to that of the venerable 'Affān b. Muslim. 189 It seems safe to assume that a large part of Ibn Ma'in's prestige as a master hadīth-transmitter critic stemmed from his unparalled library, as well as his high standards of integrity and probity.

¹⁸³ Al-Dhahabī reports that al-Hārith had six daughters, none of whom he married to a suitor, because both he and the prospective suitors were poor, and he did not wish to increase the number of his dependents; lī sittu binātin, asgharuhunna bint sittīna sanna mā zawwajtu wāhidatan minhunna li-annī fagīrun wa mā jā'anī illā fagīrun wa karihtu an azīda fi 'iyāli," Siyar, XIII, 389. Al-Khatīb does not explain why al-Hārith took money for hadīth, but does mention that Ibrāhīm al-Harbī told a student who complained of this practice to still seek al-Hārith's hadīth since he was reliable; Tārīkh Baghdād, VIII, 219.

¹⁸⁵ A thorough biography of Ibn Ma'in and study of his Tānīkh that has proven valuable for these paragraphs is Ahmad Muhammad Nur Sayf, Yahya b. Ma'in wa kitābuh al-Tārīkh, I (Mecca, 1979). Useful classical sources consulted for this brief sketch include Tārīkh Baghdād, XIV, 177-87 and Siyar, XI, 71-96.

¹⁸⁷ Nūr Sayf, I, 59; Siyar, XI, 81. Al-Khaṭīb includes a report from Ibn 'Adī that Ibn Ma'ın wrote 600,000 hadith; Tarikh Baghdad, XIV, 182.

¹⁸⁸ Nūr Sayf, I, 57. This anecdote is to be treated with caution, since there is but a minute number of reports on the authority of Aban b. Abī 'Ayyash from Ma'mar in the Musannaf of 'Abd al-Razzāq; Motzki, The Origins of Islamic Turisprudence, 279-80.

¹⁸⁹ Nür Sayf, I, 55. This indicates that Ibn Ma'in had higher standards of criticism than Ibn Sa'd, since the latter made liberal use of 'Affan's transmission of Ḥammād's materials throughout al-Tabaqāt al-kabīr.

Ibn Ma'īn left for his pupils the onerous task of compiling his critical opinions into books. At least six men rose to this challenge, and the books of five of them have both survived to this day and been published. The largest amount of material was preserved by his longterm companion 'Abbās al-Dūrī (d. 271/884-5) who arranged most of the 5414 reports he collated by city and included correspondence between al-Layth b. Sa'd and Mālik b. Anas. 190 The edition of Ibn Muhriz (death date unknown) is approximately a third of the size of al-Dūrī's book, and similarly lacks any discernable organization.¹⁹¹ Ibn al-Junayd's (d. about 260/874) book consists of 936 reports, many of which overlap with the material present in the previous two texts, and it too lacks any discernable organizational structure. 192 Abū Sa'īd al-Dārimī's (d. 280/893) Tārīkh, which was used in the fourth chapter of this book, is slightly larger than Ibn al-Junayd's book, but is loosely arranged alphabetically after the introductory exposition upon the best students of eleven high profile tābi'ūn. The book of Ishāq b. Mansūr al-Kawsaj (d. 251/865) has not survived, but it is cited by Ibn Abī Hātim over a thousand times in his Kītāb al-jarḥ wa l-ta'dīl. 193 Finally, the short book of the rather undistinguished Ibn Tahmān (d. 284/897) of Baghdad contains a mere 407 reports. 194

Abū l-Fadl 'Abbās b. Muḥammad al-Dūrī, the primary transmitter of Ibn Ma'īn's opinions whose Tārīkh I examine in the seventh chapter of this book, was a prominent hadith scholar during the middle third/ninth century in Baghdad. Al-Dhahabī mentions that his teach-

This book was edited by 'Abdullāh Ahmad Hasan and published as Tārīkh (Beirut: Dar al-Qalam, 1990). A thorough examination of the work's contents indicates both its extremely disorganized nature and its obsession with particularly obscure transmitters. This finding is illustrated vividly by the fact that little over 220 of the [1100] transmitters criticized by Ibn Sa'd are evaluated in this recension, and several hundred men of the former are not evaluated by Ibn Sa'd.

191 Kītāb ma'rīfat al-rijāl 'an Yaḥyā b. Ma'īn, ed. Muḥammad Kāmil al-Qassār (Damascus, 1985). Ibn Muhriz's full name is Abū l-'Abbās Ahmad b. Muhammad b. al-Qasim and he spent at least eight years with Ibn Ma'in in Baghdad.

192 Su'alāt Ibn al-Junayd li-Yahyā b. Ma'īn, ed. al-Sayvid Abū l-Mu'atī al-Nawwarī and Maḥmūd Muḥammad Khalīl (Beirut, 1990). Ibn al-Junayd's full name is Abū Ishāq lbrāhīm b. 'Abdullāh b. al-Junayd al-Khuttalī.

¹⁹³ Nūr Sayf, I, 138. Ibn Abī Ḥātim also make use regularly of Ibn Abī Khaythama's (d. 279/892) transmission of Ibn Ma'īn's opinions that does not appear to have survived as an independent work.

194 His full name is Yazīd b. al-Haytham b. Tahmān Abū Khālid al-Bādī; the edition was edited by Ahmad Muhammad Nur Sayf under the title Min kalām Abī Zakarıyyā Yahyā b. Ma'īn fī l-rijāl (Beirut: Dār al-Ma'mun lil-Turāth, 1979).

ers included Abū Dāwūd al-Tayālisī, Yaḥyā b. Abī Bukayr, 'Affān b. Muslim and that his questions to Ibn Ma'in concerning isnād criticism filled a large tome (mujallad kabīr). 195 Al-Dūrī's hadīth are found in the Sunan books of Abū Dāwūd, al-Tirmidhī, al-Nasā'ī, and Ibn Māja, and other prominent pupils of his include 'Abdullāh b. Aḥmad b. Hanbal and Abū l-Qāsim al-Baghawī. 196 The inclusion of al-Dūrī's hadith in four of the six canonical books becomes all the more remarkable, considering the reports suppressed by al-Dhahabī but found in Tārīkh Baghdād that al-Dūrī enjoyed his date-wine (nabīdh) until, supposedly, he was convinced one afternoon by a youth that it was unlawful. 197 Precious little information about al-Dūrī has survived in addition to this pious anecdote, although it is clear that he was a public hadīth scholar and teacher, like al-Harith b. Abī Usāma, and in contrast to the reclusive, historian Ibn Fahm.

V.4.3 Ahmad b. Hanbal and his son 'Abdullāh

The life of Ahmad b. Hanbal dominates 181 pages of the twelfth tabaqa of al-Dhahabī's Siyar a'lām al-nubalā' and has received several recent studies. 198 Most of the discussion in the Western literature concerns the events surrounding the mihna, whereas modern Arabic works tend to devote much space to his legal opinions. 199 The primary focus of this biographical sketch is Ibn Hanbal's elevated role in hadīth compilation and criticism both because of the nature of this study and because Cooperson's judicious study of the various classical accounts of the milna has exhausted this controversial dimension of his life.200

¹⁹⁵ Siyar, XII, 522-3.

¹⁹⁷ The argument used by the youth was in the form of a dialogue: "What is your opinion concerning nabīdh?" he asked. Al-Dūrī replied "It is lawful (halāl)." The student said "Is it better to have a little nabīdh or a lot?" "A little," he replied. The youth said "Oh shaykh, if something that is lawful is better in a small amount than in a large amount, it must be unlawful!" Tārīkh Baghdād, XII, 145. This argument is not very sound of course; divorce is lawful, and yet it is clearly favorable for one to practice it as little as possible. In fact, this argument would seem to indicate that date-wine is makrūh rather than harām.

¹⁹⁸ See for example, Cooperson, Classical Arabic Biography, 107-53 and Nimrod Hurvitz, The Formation of Hanbalism, 23-70.

A useul book for this brief sketch has been 'Abd al-Ghanī Dugr, Ahmad ibn Hanbal: Imām Ahl al-Sunna. A'lām al-Muslimīn: 17 (Damascus: Dār al-Qalam, 1988). 2000 Cooperson seeks to answer the thorny question as to whether Ibn Hanbal's

Ahmad b. Muhammad b. Hanbal was born in either Khurasan or Baghdad in 164/780-1. His grandfather was a governor of Sarakhs and his father passed away while he was quite young.201 His studies of hadīth began in 179/795, the year that Mālik b. Anas and Hammād b. Zavd died and Ibn al-Mubārak left Baghdad; his first teacher may have been the famous Qādī Abū Yūsuf. 202 Ibn Hanbal was a disciple of Hushaym b. Bashīr from 180/796 until the latter's death three years later and wrote over a thousand hadīth from this venerable shavkh. 203 He traveled to Kufa in 183/799 and acquired a copious amount of material from Wakī' b. al-Jarrāh and Abū Nu'aym al-Fadl b. Dukayn. 204 Ibn Hanbal made at least three journevs to the hadith capital Basra in 186/802, 190/806, and 194/810; the first of these was to hear from al-Mu'tamir b. Sulayman on the eve of his death, and the last one was with the master critic Yahyā b. Sa'īd al-Qattān.²⁰⁵ Ibn Hanbal's first trip to the Hijāz in 187/802 brought him into contact with Sufyan b. 'Uyayna and al-Shafi'i, although he did not arrive there prior to the death of the ascetic al-Fudayl b. 'Iyad. 206 His second trip to Arabia, from 197-99/812-15,

²⁰¹ Cooperson, 109; Sivar, 184. Note that his father left him a sweatshop (dar altirāz) and property that provided Ibn Hanbal and his family with a source of income;

Sivar. XI. 319-20.

²⁰³ Patton, 12 (3.000 hadīth obtained from him); Dugr. 30.

²⁰⁵ Dugr, 32. Ibn Hanbal also traveled to Wāsit on this last Basran trip to hear hadith from Yazīd b. Hārūn. Al-Dhahabī mentions that Ibn Hanbal heard 12,000 reports from 'Abd al-Rahman b. Mahdī and copied the highly valued books of Ghundar that contained the hadith of Shu'ba; Siyar, XI, 308.

²⁰⁶ Siyar, XI, 183. Dugr makes an error on page 33 in stating that Ibn Hanbal

was with his companions Ibn Ma'īn and Ibn Rāhawayh and led him all the way to Yemen in order to study with 'Abd al-Razzāq prior to the weakening of the latter's memory in 200/815-6.207 There appears to have been a lull in Ibn Hanbal's travels after what must have been an arduous trip back from San'a' to Baghdad at which time he married 'Abbāsa bint al-Fadl, who bore him Sālih in 203/818-9 and then, after her early death, Rayhāna, who bore him 'Abdullāh in 213/828.208 His last journey may have been to Syria and is dated in a report by al-Marrūdhī to six years after the birth of Ṣāliḥ.209

The period from the return of Ibn Hanbal and Ibn Ma'in from Yemen to Baghdad around the year 200/815 until the former's oath to abandon public teaching in 237/851 was one of intensive hadīth compilation and criticism. I have mentioned already the sessions of Ibn Rāhawayh and Qutayba b. Sa'īd earlier in this chapter and the names of the scholars subjected to the mihna demonstrates the significance of Baghdad in this process. Both Abū Zur'a and Abū Hatim traveled from Rayy to study with Ibn Hanbal during this time, and the latter of these two scholars reports that he acquired Ibn Hanbal's books on unlawful drinks (Kītāb al-ashriba) and faith (tman) during his first visit in 223/838.210 Ibn Hanbal, like his companion Ibn Ma'īn, was adamant about acquiring all of his hadīth in

met with Ibrāhīm b. Sa'd b. Ibrāhīm at this time, since he settled in Baghdad and died in 185; al-Khallāl mentions that they met in Medina in 182, but this was during the time that Ibn Hanbal was with Hushaym; Siyar, XI, 308.

²⁰⁸ Siyar, XI, 185; Duqr, 24-5. Duqr (page 37) mentions that Ibn Hanbal went to hear Abū l-Yamān in Hims after his journey to San'a'; it is not clear if he means

on the return journey, or at a later date.

release was due to his capitulation to the doctrine of the created Qur'an or due to the Caliph's fear of killing the pious old scholar. Western scholars such as van Ess and Hinds have favored the capitulation hypothesis on the basis of the anti-Hanbalī reports of al-Jāhiz, al-Ya'qūbī, and Ibn al-Murtadā, but Cooperson demonstrates that the "family" accounts of Salih and Hanbal b. Ishaq that Ibn Hanbal did not break under pressure are equally, if not more, plausible than those of the first three men listed; see Cooperson, Classical Arabic Biography, 126.

²⁰² Siyar, XI, 306; Dugr, 30. Al-Dhahabī's report is on the authority of 'Abbās al-Dūrī; 'Abdullāh b. Ahmad mentions that his father copied and memorized the books of Abū Yūsuf and Muhammad b. al-Hasan al-Shaybānī; Siyar, XI, 306.

²⁰⁴ Dugr reports that Ibn Hanbal traveled to Rayy in 182 to hear from 'Alī b. Mujāhid al-Kābulī, although this seems to contradict the report that he was with Hushaym until the latter's death in 183. Dugr also reports that Ibn Hajar considered 'Alī b. Muiāhid the weakest of Ibn Hanbal's teachers. Al-Dhahabī quotes al-Marrūdhī's report that he heard Ibn Hanbal state that there was nobody from whom he had written more hadīth than Wakī': Sivar, XI, 307. Al-Dhahabī also reports that Ibn Hanbal studied with Abū Nu'aym in 185; Siyar, XI, 308. Whether he spent the years 183-5 in Kufa or made two trips is not clear.

Patton, 16; Duqr, 33; Siyar, XI, 215. Al-Dhahabī reports that Ibn Hanbal only heard seventy hadith from 'Abd al-Razzāq from his memory and that everything else was from his books. 'Abd al-Razzāq was particularly important for the fact that he spent seven years in the presence of Ma'mar b. Rashid, one of the most prolific transmitters of hadīth from al-Zuhrī, as well as Ibn Jurayi and Sufyān al-Thawrī; see Motzki, The Origins of Islamic Jurisprudence, 62-8. Note another report by al-Dhahabī that Ibn Hanbal's entire Yemeni journey lasted only 10 months, a figure which seems rather short by means of premodern travel; Siyar, XI, 306.

²⁰⁹ Siyar, XI, 306. İbn Hanbal told al-Marrūdhī: mā kharajtu ilā l-shāmi illā ba'da mā wulida lī Sālih, azunnu kāna ibna sitti sinīn hīna kharajtu. There is a report that he went to Tarsus in 237/851 to participate in military raids (ghazwa); Siyar, XI, 311. Most of these scholars, along with several others are mentioned by Hurvitz; The Formation of Hanbalism, 44-52. Hurvitz's comment that Ibn Mahdī was Ibn Hanbal's "only teacher from those years who belonged to the intellectual elite of the Traditionist milieu" (p. 48) is contradicted by his own statement a few pages later that the four leaders of the hadīth scholars were Ibn 'Uyayna, Wakī', Yahyā l-Qattān, and Ibn Mahdī (p. 55), all of whom were very important teachers of Ibn Hanbal. ²¹⁰ Siyar, XI, 301.

the Musnad according to legal topics in order to facilitate its use,²¹⁶ although the first thorough, critical edition complete with hadith-transmitten original for the second of the second of the second or second o

mitter criticism for the thousands of men in the *isnāds* was not completed by Aḥmad Muḥammad Shākir prior to his death. This project has just been completed under the editorial guidance of Shu'ayb al-

Arnā'ūt and 'Ādil Murshad in fifty volumes and this beautiful new edition of the *Musnad* should greatly facilitate research of this most

challenging monument of Sunnī hadīth literature.217

One last significant question that must be addressed is whether Ibn Ḥanbal was considered a jurist in the eyes of his peers and pupils. Susan Spectorsky and Wael Hallaq have argued that Ibn Ḥanbal's legal acumen was a later invention, largely on the basis of the fact that scholars such Ibn Qutayba, al-Ṭabarī, and Ibn 'Abd al-Barr did not identify him as a jurist. Spectorsky and Hallaq seem to have overlooked some critical evidence that contradicts this thesis, for al-Tirmidhī includes many of Ibn Ḥanbal's legal opinions in his canonical hadīth book, 19 Abū Dāwūd al-Sijistānī's collection of legal inquiries has been published by Rashīd Riḍā at the beginning of this past century (part of which is even translated by Spectorsky), and the esteemed jurist Muḥammad b. Naṣr al-Marwazī (d. 294/907) regularly includes Ibn Ḥanbal's opinions in his Ikhtilāf

writing and in not relying solely upon the faculty of memory unless he was teaching fewer than a hundred *hadīth*.²¹¹ Despite this devotion to written materials, Ibn Ḥanbal left the task of the compilation of his massive *Musnad* to his son 'Abdullāh, and appears to have left a few short books of his own.²¹² As for Ibn Ḥanbal's legal opinions, the task of organizing this material from a long list of students fell to Abū Bakr al-Khallāl (d. 311/923), the founder of the Ḥanbalī school of jurisprudence, and compiler of the now lost *al-Jāmī* '*li-'ulūm Ahmad b. Hanbal*.²¹³

The Musnad of Ibn Hanbal remains one of the most challenging texts in the genre of hadīth literature due to its volume and the absence of any thematic organization. Al-Dhahabī traces the transmission of this book from 'Abdullāh b. Aḥmad to Abū Bakr b. Mālik al-Qaṭī'ī to the preacher (al-wā'iz) Abū 'Alī b. al-Mudhhab to Abū l-Qāsim Hibat Allāh b. Muḥammad to numerous illustrious scholars, such as Ibn al-Jawzī and Ibn 'Asākir, and observes that none of the three transmitters after 'Abdullāh was a particularly gifted hadīth scholar. He also offers encouraging words for a scholar to rearrange the contents of the book so as to facilitate its usage, to correct orthographic errors, and clarify the quality of many transmitters, and states "had I not been incapable of this due to the weakness of my vision, were my intention not hollow, nor my journey (death?) close, I would have done this." This task was partially completed by Aḥmad al-Bannā, who arranged the contents of

²¹¹ Siyar, XI, 213.

²¹² Al-Dhahabī argues that both al-Risāla fī l-ṣalāt and al-Radd 'alā l-zanādiqa are forged and were not the works of Ibn Ḥanbal; Siyar, XI, 287. Furthermore, he argues that the "100,000-hadīth tafsīr" attributed to him never existed, as there are virtually no records of it and it would be impossible for something so large to disappear without a trace in Baghdad; Siyar, XI, 328 and XIII, 522. He does seem to agree that the following books were products of Ibn Ḥanbal with a little editorial assistance from his son 'Abdullāh and his son's pupil Abū Bakr al-Qaṭīʿī: al-Nāṣikh wa l-manṣūkh, al-Tārīkh, Ḥadīth Shuʿba, al-Muqaddim wa l-muʾakhkir fī l-Qurʾān, Jawābāt al-Qurʾān, al-Manāṣik, Nafy al-tashbīh, al-Imāma, al-Zuhd, and Fadāʾil al-ṣaḥāba; Siyar, XI, 327 and 330. See also GAS, 502–9.

²¹³ Melchert, *The Formation of the Sunni Schools of Law*, 143–55; *GAS*, I, 512. Al-Dhahabī records a list of al-Khallāl's teachers near the end of Ibn Ḥanbal's entry; *Siyar*, XI, 330–1; see also al-Khallāl's entry in the *Siyar*, XIV, 298.

²¹⁴ Siyar, XIII, 524. He also remarks that Abū Nu'aym al-Işbahānī obtained much of the *Musnad* from Abū 'Alī b. al-Ṣawwāf (as well as al-Qaṭī'ī) and that al-Ḥākim al-Navsābūrī also received it from al-Qaṭī'ī.

²¹⁵ wa law lā annī qad 'ajiztu 'an dhālika li-dafi l-baṣari, wa 'adami l-niyyati, wa qurbi l-raḥīli, la-'amiltu fī dhālika; Siyar, XIII, 525.

 $^{^{216}}$ Aḥmad al-Bannā, al-Fatḥ al-rabbānī second edition, 24 vols. (Cairo: Dār al-Ḥadīth, no date).

Another text that facilitates research with the cumbersome Musnad is the recently published Atrāf Musnad al-Imām Aḥmad bin Ḥanbal al musnamā Itrāf al-musnad al-muʿtalī bi-aṭrāf al-musnad al-Ḥanbalī, ed. Zuhayr b. Nāṣir (Beirut and Damascus, 1993) by Ibn Ḥajar. This book collates all of the hadīth of identical matn that share an identical saḥābī and tābiʿī in the isnād in one place, and thus reduces the number of hadīth from about 30,000 to 12,787.

Ibn Rāhwayh, 2 and Wael Hallaq, Authority, Continuity, and Change in Islamic Law (Cambridge: Cambridge University Press, 2001), 40. These are curious sources to cite as evidence that Ibn Hanbal was not a jurist, since both Ibn Qutayba and al-Tabarī had sour relations with the adherents of the teachings of Ibn Hanbal, and Ibn 'Abd al-Barr actually cites Ibn Hanbal's legal opinions regularly in his massive work al-Istidhkār. Note also that al-Dhahabī includes a report that neither al-Ţabarī nor Ibn Surayj considered Ibn Qutayba's figh to be of any value (laysa bi-shay') and that one should only rely upon him for his impressive linguistic erudition; Siyar, XIII, 301.

²¹⁹ For example, al-Tirmidhī regularly quotes Ibn Ḥanbal's opinions alongside those of Ibn Rāhawayh, Mālik, al-Shāfi'ī, and Sufyān al-Thawrī in his Jāmi'. Al-Tirmidhī's source for Ibn Ḥanbal's and Ibn Rāhawayh's legal opinions is none other than Isḥāq b. Manṣūr al-Kawsaj, the same source used by Spectorsky in chapter 4 of Chapters on Marriage and Divorce; see al-Tirmidhī, al-Jāmi' al-ṣaḥīḥ, V, 737.

al-'ulamā' alongside those of Sufyān al-Thawrī, al-Shāfi'ī, Ibn Rāhawayh, and others.²²⁰ While al-Jassās's abridgement of al-Tahāwī's Ikhtilāf alfugahā' does not appear to include any opinions of Ibn Hanbal (something that is not surprising given the lack of respect shown to Abū Hanīfa by Ibn Hanbal and most hadīth scholars of this age), 221 Ibn al-Mundhir's (d. 318/930) al-Ishrāf 'alā madhāhib ahl al-'ilm does include the opinions of Ibn Hanbal, along with a host of other authorities.²²² It does appear untenable, at least on the basis of this brief survey of early ikhtilāf al-fugahā' books, to argue that Ibn Hanbal was not a respected jurist in the third/ninth century, although it is probably true that his fame rested more heavily upon his hadīth erudition than that of his legal opinions.

A few words should be said about 'Abdullāh b. Ahmad b. Hanbal, a man whose life was greatly overshadowed by his illustrious father. I have already remarked that 'Abdullah was born in 213/828 and that he transmitted the entire Musnad from his father, as well as the Kītāb al-zuhd. The Kītāb al-'ilal of his father's critical opinions is clearly a work of his own from the fact that nearly every report begins with the expression "I asked my father."223 Both al-Khatīb al-Baghdādī and al-Dhahabī include substantial lists of teachers with whom 'Abdullah studied in addition to his father, among whom we find Ibn Ma'īn, Abū Khaythama, Ibn Abī Shayba, and Sufyān b. Wakī' b. al-Jarrāḥ (d. 247/861). 224 His pupils include al-Nasā'ī, Abū l-Qāsim al-Baghawī, Ibn Ṣāʿid, and al-Tabarānī, as well as the important transmitters of the Musnad Abū 'Alī al-Sawwāf and Abū Bakr al-Qațī'ī, and the indefatigable compiler of Ibn Hanbal's religious opinions Abū Bakr al-Khallāl. Little else has been preserved about 'Abdullāh's life beyond his dedication to the transmission of his father's erudition, and it seems safe to speculate that he lived quietly in the company of hadīth scholars and free from the abuses his father received during the mihna.225

V.5 Conclusion

The goal of this chapter was to shed light upon the religious and cultural setting of the three prominent hadith scholars whose works I shall be analyzing in the second part of this book. The primary source was the rich Siyar a'lām al-nubalā' of al-Dhahabī and I classified most of the 345 men found in the eleventh and twelfth tabaqāt into five groups: 1) rulers, poets, and litterateurs; 2) theologians; 3) ascetics; 4) judges, jurists, and muftis; 5) hadīth scholars. Despite the presence of extraordinary figures in all five of these groups, only the fourth and fifth ones included a significant number of hadīth scholars. I determined the most significant hadīth scholars of the lot on the basis of al-Dhahabī's critical remarks and their own efforts at compilation. The portrait of the state of the field of hadīth scholarship in the first half of the third/ninth century that flourished without serious interruption from the largely ineffective milna, is of one that was anchored in Baghdad, Basra, and Kufa and strongly supported by the Eastern lands of Iran and Central Asia. Finally, it is clear from this chapter and the preceding one that Ibn Sa'd, Ibn Ma'īn, and Ibn Hanbal all played a significant role in the global process of hadith scholarship, especially with regard to hadīth-transmitter criticism and textual compilation.

²²⁰ This short work was first edited by al-Sayyid Subhī al-Sāmarrā'ī and published by 'Alam al-Kutub in Beirut (1985). Hallag includes al-Marwazī among his "very distinguished group of jurists" known as the "four Muhammads;" see Authority, Continuity, and Change in Islamic Law, 59. Note that al-Marwazī, like al-Tirmidhī, never refers to Abū Hanīfa, Shaybānī, or Abū Yūsuf by name, but instead uses the anonymous term ashāb al-ra'y.

This topic is addressed in some detail below in chapter VIII.4. See also Melchert, "The Adversaries of Ahmad ibn Hanbal." Note that he refers to Ibn Hanbal as a participant in the field of jurisprudence, despite the acknowledgement that he only based law on hadith and the legal opinions of the Companions and Successors, ibid., 235. Presumably one could add also the Our'an to this list of

²²² Ibn al-Mundhir, al-Ishrāf 'alā madhāhib ahl al-'ilm (Beirut: Dār al-Fikr, 1993). Ibn al-Mundhir al-Navsābūrī is also included among the "very distinguished group of jurists" known as the "four Muhammads" according to Hallag; see Authority, Continuity, and Change in Islamic Law, 59. The remaining two Muhammads are al-Tabari and Ibn Khuzayma, the latter of whom almost certainly must have considered Ibn Hanbal a jurist as well as a master hadīth scholar as well.

²²³ See also The Formation of the Sunni Schools of Law, 140 for a similar argument. ²²⁴ Tārīkh Baghdād, IX, 375; Siyar, XIII, 517. Al-Dhahabī includes a list of a large

number of shuyūkh from whom 'Abdullāh transmitted hadīth among his additions to the Musnad of his father; ibid., XIII, 518-20.

²²⁵ There is a report found only in Ibn Abī Ya'lā's Tabaqāt al-Hanābila that 'Abdullāh accepted a judgeship at the end of his life in Khurasan; see The Formation of the Sunni Schools of Law, 140. It is curious that this post is mentioned neither by al-Khatīb al-Baghdādī nor by al-Dhahabī.

PART TWO

THE THREE PRINCIPLES OF HADĪTH-SCHOLAR SUNNĪ ISLAM: ṢAHĀBA, HADĪTH-TRANSMITTER CRITICISM, AND HISTORY

CHAPTER SIX

THE SAḤĀBA IN CLASSICAL MUSLIM THEORY AND PRACTICE

VI.1

I proposed in the introduction to this book that the three salient pillars upon which the Sunnī Islam of the hadīth scholars stands are the assertion of the collective probity of the sahāba, the broad consensus among the master hadīth-transmitter critics regarding the reliability of several hundred hadith-transmitters, and the implicit historical vision of the five-generation network of these men. This chapter analyzes both the theoretical and practical aspects of the first of these three pillars, namely the sahāba. It articulates clearly the historical challenge faced by Muslims due to the deep involvement of the first generation of Muslims on opposing sides in the civil strife that fragmented the nascent Muslim community from 11-40/632-61, and analyzes interpretations of these events advanced by the Imāmī Shī'a, Zaydiyya/Baghdādī Mu'tazila, and the Sunnīs over the course of the third/ninth century. The findings of this chapter suggests that the fundamental divisions between the Shī'a and Sunnīs arose out of irreconcilable historiographies rather than theologies, and that the position advocated by the Sunnīs was due primarily to the catalytic role of the sahāba in hadīth transmission rather than the widely circulated reports extolling their individual merits (fadā'il).

While western scholarship has not ignored the significance of the sahāba in the development of Islam, it has done relatively little to elucidate the historical and didactic roles of individual actors. The recent entry for the sahāba in the Encyclopaedia of Islam is symptomatic of this problem, as it opens with the statement that "Ṣaḥāba... are the Companions of the Prophet Muḥammad, who in many respects are key figures in the early history of Islam," concludes a mere page and a half later with a brief (and outdated) description of Ibn Sa'd's classification of them, and mentions very few secondary works in the bibliography. The sahāba are mentioned only in connection with the

¹ M. Muranyi, "Ṣaḥāba," E12, VIII, 827-9. This volume was published in 1994.

Rāfiḍa (Imāmī Shī'a) in Montgomery Watt's Formative Period of Islamic Thought and are absent from his discussion of "The Triumph of Sunnism." Noth and Conrad mention that the

theory of the superiority of the Companions of the Prophet... appears in the $\mathit{fut\bar{u}h}$ traditions, in traditions on the fitna , in traditions on cities, in reports on administration, law, and the caliphate, and indeed in practically all areas covered by the early transmitters

but, surprisingly, they do not consider the saḥāba to be either a major or minor theme in early Islamic historiography.³ Juynboll discusses the question of the collective probity of the saḥāba in both The Authenticity of the Tradition Literature and Muslim Tradition and asserts in the latter work that

the Companions, as a class of people, were collectively placed on a level higher than that of any other, later generations and whoever casts, or tries to cast, the slightest blemish on the reputation of a single Companion runs the risk of being ostracized.[†]

Juynboll credits the doctrine of the collective probity of the saḥāba to Abū Ḥātim al-Rāzī and thus dates it to the final decades of the third/ninth century and the first decades of the following one.⁵ The

bulk of his efforts, however, concern the probity of Abū Hurayra and arose from his investigation into the modern Egyptian controversy concerning this uniquely prolific sahābī that followed the publications of Abū Rayya in the first half of the past century.6 Muhammad Siddīqī observes that "the trustworthiness of the great mass of hadīths" depends upon the "reliability and honesty" of the sahāba and he includes a useful summary of Ibn al-Jawzī's list of 123 men and women who transmitted twenty or more hadīth.7 Daniel Brown eloquently describes the sahāba as "an indispensable link in the epistemological chain between the Prophet and the rest of humanity" and observes that their collective probity is one of the three topics that "dominate the Muslim discussion of hadīth authenticity" from the time of Sayyid Ahmad Khān (1817-98) until the present.8 Finally, Shī'ī attitudes towards the sahāba have been clarified by two articles from Etan Kohlberg9 as well as the first several chapters of Jafri's Origins and Early Development of Shī'a Islam, although the latter's interpretation of the event of the Saqīfa as "inextricably connected with the emergence of the Shī'ī viewpoint" seems somewhat tendentious at best.10

² Watt, The Formative Period of Islamic Thought, 159-161.

Noth and Conrad, The Early Arabic Historical Tradition: A source-critical study, translated by Michael Bonner (Princeton: Darwin Press, 1994), 22. Of some interest for this study is the inclusion of the filna (the killing of 'Uthmān, Battle of the Camel, and Battle of Ṣiffīn) among the seven primary themes; this means, according to the theories of Noth and Conrad, that these events probably have some historical veracity (pp. 33-5). However, they classify the role of the salāba in the newly founded cities to be a secondary theme (pp. 54-5), which, according to their definition, means that "this new information is either literary embellishment or pure fiction" (p. 27). The salāba do not receive the status of "theme" in Donner's Narratives of Islamic Origins (Princeton: Darwin Press, 1998) either, although filna is classified under the "themes of Leadership" in a more extensive manner than the three battles mentioned above by Noth and Conrad (p. 189). Donner's The Early Islamic Conquests (Princeton, 1981) takes the military roles of the salāba seriously, although given the subject matter of the book, one would not expect to find information about their roles off of the battlefield.

⁺ Juvnboll, Muslim Tradition, 191.

⁵ Muslim Tradition, 194–5. Both Juynboll and Dickinson credit the Taqdima of Ibn Abī Ḥātim with being the earliest source in which this concept is found; Juynboll, The Authenticity of the Tradition Literature: Discussions in Modern Egypt (Leiden: Brill, 1969), 79 and Dickinson, The Development of Early Sunnite Ḥadīth Criticism, 82. Neither one of them mentions al-Wāqidī's definition of a saḥābī preserved in Ibn Sa'd's al-Ṭabaqāt al-kabīr that we shall discuss below and that predates Abū Ḥātim's opinion by a century.

The Authenticity of the Tradition Literature, 62–99. It will become apparent that Juynboll's suggestion that "once the unreliability of one Companion... had been established, the entire tradition criticism and, consequently, the tradition literature is put on an unfirm basis" (p. 56) is a little hyperbolic given the relatively small number of saḥāba who played a meaningful role in hadīth transmission; the material of dozens of "controversial" saḥāba could be jettisoned without having a noticeable impact on the literature overall. Note that al-Ṭabarānī's 30,000-hadīth al-Muʿjam al-kabīr mentioned in the third chapter does not have any hadīth from Abū Hurayra, the most prolific by far of all saḥāba; clearly there is sufficient material for the elucidation of Islamic practice even if a few major saḥāba were ignored.

⁷ Şiddīqī, *Hadīth Literature*, 14–18. Ibn al-Jawzī's list is found in his *Talqīl*, a one volume book filled with lists of names of all sort of historically interesting people and devoid of any substantive biographical information.

⁸ Daniel Brown, Rethinking Tradition in Modern Islamic Thought, 85. The other two major topics of discussion are the manner of hadīth transmission and the "efficacy of isnād criticism."

⁹ "Some Zaydī views on the Companions of the Prophet," BSOAS, 39/1 (1976) 91-8 and "Some Imāmī Shī'ī views of the ṣaḥāba," JSAI, 5 (1984) 143-75. These articles are discussed below, VI.3.2.

¹⁰ S. Husain M. Jafri, Origins and Early Development of Shi a Islam (London, 1979), 27. Jafri is particularly critical of Ibn Sa'd's treatment of the Saqīfa in his entry on Abū Bakr and argues that "the entire section is carefully planned to show that Abū Bakr... was beyond doubt the only deserving candidate to succeed the dying Prophet" (p. 34). Nowhere does Jafri mention that Abū Bakr is the forty-sixth entry among the Muhājirūn at Badr while 'Alī, due to his genealogical proximity to the Prophet is the third (after the Prophet himself and his uncle Ḥamza). In reality, Abū

The tranquil state of benign neglect of the sahāba in Western scholarship was shattered by the arrival of Wilferd Madelung's The Succession to Muḥammad in 1997. Madelung's careful reading of al-Ṭabarī's history, the Ansāb al-ashrāf of al-Balādhūrī (d. 279/892), and Sharh nahj al-balāgha of Ibn Abī l-Ḥadīd (d. 656/1258), among other works, resulted in one of the first narratives of the history of the first five caliphs in recent memory to include copious prosopographical material regarding the lives of over a hundred early Muslims. Madelung's purported 'pro-'Alī' interpretation of the events of the first half-century of Islam, however, has been severely criticized by reviewers such as Patricia Crone and Yassin Dutton. Unfortunately, these two reviewers were so distracted by Madelung's colorful (and at times offensive) remarks concerning individual Muslims that they missed the major accomplishments of The Succession to Muḥammad, some of which include:

- 1) An exploration of the concept ahl al-bayi (literally, "people of the house") found in the Qur'ān with regard to the families of earlier prophets, and the importance of blood kinship, two concepts that could have made 'Alī a strong candidate for succession to the Prophet instead of the "obvious" candidate Abū Bakr; 13
- 2) An emphasis on the violent election of Abū Bakr and the first suppression of the Anṣār at the Saqīfa;¹⁴
- 3) An emphasis on the radical break from Qur'ānic practice in Abū Bakr's denial of inheritance to Fāṭima, 'Alī, and al-'Abbās,

as well as his willingness to slaughter various Muslim tribes on the basis of his interpretation of their refusal to pay the zakāt tax as "apostasy;" 15

- 4) The discovery that 'Uthmān's nepotism originated from the *beginning* of his reign and that all governorships were in the hands of his kin within the first five years of his caliphate;¹⁶
- 5) The suggestion that 'Alī's caliphate should be described more accurately as a "counter-caliphate" due to the lack of legitimacy it suffered in the absence of a shūrā of eminent sahāba and the support of the majority of the Quraysh.¹⁷

Of particular interest for this project is Madelung's extraordinary attention to the sides chosen by dozens of sahāba in the civil strife that erupted immediately after the death of the Prophet Muḥammad and periodically flared until the reign of 'Abd al-Malik b. Marwān.¹8 The richness of Madelung's narrative does make it difficult to keep track of all of these men and women, and so a summary presentation of this material, as well as some additional information gleaned from Ibn Sa'd's al-Tabaqāt al-kabīr, Ibn al-Jawzī's al-Muntazam, and al-Dhahabī's Tārīkh al-Islām, is the first task of this chapter. Whether Madelung's prosopographically dazzling history of the early caliphate ever recovers from the epithets hurled at it by unappreciative reviewers is of little importance, since it demonstrates what can be done with the classical Muslim sources, rather than what necessarily should be done with them by the theoretically non-partisan modern historian.

Bakr's entry is little different than that of any of the prominent early $sah\bar{a}ba$ in al-Tabaqāt al-kabīr.

Wilferd Madelung, The Succession to Muhammad: A study of the early Caliphate (Cambridge, 1997).

¹² Patricia Crone, "In defence of 'Alī," Times Literary Supplement, 7 Feb 1997, p. 28; Yassin Diatton, Journal of Islamic Studies, 9 (1998) 66–9. Crone declares flatly that Madelung's opinion is "Shi'ite" while Dutton calls it "pro-'Alī." It should be noted that Crone's God's Caliph (co-authored with Martin Hinds) is extremely pro-Umayyad and that she states "'Alī was a pretender, on a par with the protagonists of the first civil war" (p. 32) despite the overwhelming evidence that only 'Alī received the oath of allegiance (bay'a) after the death of 'Uthmān. This episode is treated in detail below.

¹³ Succession, 6-27. Dutton challenges Madelung's argument concerning the nature of the inheritance of the Prophet (p. 69) but his suggestion that the 'People of Badr' were purified just like the family of the Prophet in the Qur'ān is hardly convincing given that only the Prophet's family were forbidden from receiving alms and received instead a special portion of the war booty; see Succession, 13-4.

¹⁴ Succession, 28-43.

¹⁵ Succession, 47-53.

Succession, 86-7.

¹⁷ Succession, 141.

This feature is by far the most significant difference between Madelung's book and Crone and Hinds' God's Caliph, both of which claim to be studies of the early caliphate. How Crone and Hinds claim to elucidate the "true" original nature of the caliphate without even mentioning the roles of 'Umar b. al-Khaṭṭāb, the civil war, 'Alī, the saḥāba, Banū Hāshim, the Anṣār, or even the official court hadīth-scholar al-Zuhrī is puzzling. The student must choose between Madelung's interpretation of the early caliphs as individual actors and Crone and Hinds' thesis that the caliphs were universally respected political-religious officials, each of whom functioned more-or-less like his predecessor.

VI.2 The problem: The intra-sahāba conflicts of 11-40/632-661

There are seven discrete episodes within the first thirty years of the post-prophetic Islamic community that involve either violence or serious dissension among the men and women who embraced Islam during the lifetime of Muhammad. Despite the fact that both classical Muslim historians and heresiographers¹⁹ have been forthright in their inclusion of these painful episodes in their books, only Madelung has investigated these conflicts thoroughly in *The Succession to Muhammad*. This section is heavily indebted to Madelung's thorough reading of the sources and seeks both to present and supplement the information found in his book in a clear, unpolemical light in order to articulate the gravity of the early internecine strife that both Sunnīs and Western historians in general continue to sweep under the carpet in their narratives of Islamic origins.

The first conflict arose the day of the Prophet's death between the leaders of the Anṣār and three Muhājirūn over the nature of the political leadership of the Muslim community. Abū Bakr's argument that the supreme leadership should be restricted to the Quraysh triumphed over the Anṣārī al-Ḥubāb b. al-Mundhir's vision of "a commander (amīr) from among us and a commander from among you," and the combination of 'Umar b. al-Khaṭṭāb's oath of allegiance (bay'a) and the beating of the Khazrajī leader Sa'd b. 'Ubāda resolved the dispute. Despite the general bay'a that took place in the main mosque shortly after this event, several saḥāba from Banū Hāshim and 'Abd al-Shams refused to give Abū Bakr the bay'a for six months. A significant reason for this delay may have been Abū

This episode, known as the 'Affair of the Saqīfa,' is included by al-Bukhārī in his sub-chapter on the merits of Abū Bakr, as well as elsewhere in his Saḥīh; see Ibn Hajar, Fath al-bārī, VII, 368–9.

Jafri includes a list thirteen sahāba who delayed their bay'a to Abū Bakr, only one of whom is mentioned by Madelung as having done so: Ḥudhayfa b. al-Yamān, Khuzayma b. Thābit, Abū Ayyūb al-Anṣārī, Sahl b. Ḥunayf, 'Uthmān b. Ḥunayf, al-Barā' b. 'Āzib, Ubayy b. Ka'b, Abū Dharr al-Ghifārī, 'Ammār b. Yāsir, al-Miqdād b. 'Amr, Salmān al-Fārisī, al-Zubayr b. al-'Awwām, and Khālid b. Sa'īd, Origins and Development of Early Shī'a Islam, 51–3. Most of these names are found in the pro-Shī'ī Tārikh al-Ya'qūbī, II (Beirut: Dār Ṣādir, no date), 124 as indicated by Jafri. It is interesting that Jafri fails to include Abū Sufyān, the father of 'Alī's nemesis Mu'āwiya, as well as al-'Abbās and al-Faḍl b. 'Abbās, in this list; Tārīkh al-Ya'qūbī, II, 124–6.

Bakr's confiscation of the Prophet's significant revenue-producing lands and the subsequent denial of the right of inheritance to his relatives on the basis of a purported prophetic saying that prophets "do not bequeath [to heirs]."²² 'Ali, al-'Abbās, Abū l-'Āṣ b. Abī Rabī'a, Abān b. Sa'īd, and Khālid b. Sa'īd are all reported to have delayed giving Abū Bakr the bay'a until after the death of Fāṭima,²³ who was buried secretly without the knowledge of the caliph. The Anṣārī Sa'd b. 'Ubāda, who was one of the prestigious twelve nuqabā' that facilitated the emigration of the Prophet to Yathrib in his time of need, never gave the bay'a to Abū Bakr after the violence he experienced at the Saqīfa incident and may have been the only saḥābī to withhold his allegiance to 'Umar.²⁴

The second major conflict among the saḥāba was the ridda wars whose execution was justified again on the basis of a prophetic hadīth over the objections of 'Umar.²⁵ These battles pitted Abū Bakr and his Muslim armies against tribes that ranged from advocates of the self-proclaimed prophet Musaylima to Muslims who did not wish to pay the alms tax to the caliph in Medina. Ibn Sa'd identifies six men of the fourth tabaqa of saḥāba, namely those who embraced Islam after the conquest of Mecca, who participated in the ridda wars against Abū Bakr's fiscal policy. Only one of these men, Mālik b. Nuwayra, is reported to have been killed, despite his claim that he was not an apostate.²⁶ All of the remaining five men were captured

¹⁹ Note that the *firaq* books of al-Ash'arī, 'Abd al-Qāhir al-Baghdādī, and al-Shahrastanī all begin with a brief enumeration of most, if not all, of these incidents.

²² Succession, 50. Madelung suggests that Fāṭima must have been shocked to have her father's purported own words used against her by Abū Bakr. The fact that the surviving wives of Muhammad also came to Abū Bakr to obtain their inheritance indicates that everyone in the Prophet's household expected his or her inheritance to follow the rules sanctioned in the Qur'ān. Abū Bakr's hadīth, nahnu l-anbiyā'a lā nūrithu mā taraknāhu ṣadaqa, is found in several places in the Ṣahīths of al-Bukhārī and Muslim and raises the awkward question: was the first use of a hadīth for the purpose of disinheriting the Prophet's own daughter, cousin, uncle, and wives?

²³ Succession, 41.

²⁴ Succession, 34-5.

²⁵ Succession, 48–9. Madelung neglects to quote the well-known hadīth "I have been ordered to fight against the people until they testify that there is no god but Allāh and that Muḥammad in the Messenger of Allāh and until they perform the prayers and pay zakāt..." found in the Ṣaḥīḥs of al-Bukhārī and Muslim; it is the eighth hadīth in an-Nawawī's Forty Hadīth, translated by Ezzedin Ibrahim and Denys Johnson-Davies (no date, no place), 46. Note that al-Nawawī's version is from Ibn 'Umar instead of Abū Bakr.

²⁶ Succession, 49-50; Ibn Sa'd, al-Ṭabaqāt al-kubrā, VIII, 552-4. Madelung refers to Mālik's killing as "cold-blooded execution" and mentions that Khālid b. al-Walīd appropriated his wife.

and pardoned by Abū Bakr, and two of them later played a role in the victory at Qādisiya against the Sasanids.²⁷ Abū Bakr even married his sister Umm Farwa bint Abī Quḥāfa to the powerful Yemeni rebel al-Ash'ath b. Qays, who later served with distinction at the battle of Nihāwand.²⁸ Qays b. Makshūḥ, who killed at least two Muslims in the *ridda* wars, was forgiven by Abū Bakr over 'Umar's objection,²⁹ and 'Uyayna b. Ḥiṣn, who had lied to the Prophet during the campaign against al-Ṭā'if, was "brought back to Islam" by the words of Abū Bakr despite having joined the revolt of the "false-prophet" Ṭulayḥa.³⁰

The third episode of intra-ṣaḥāba violence involved various members of the "pious opposition" to 'Uthmān's policies and the Egyptian delegation, some of whose partisans ultimately murdered him. The most flagrant confrontations include the beating of 'Abdullāh b. Mas'ūd and 'Ammār b. Yāsir, as well as the banishment of Abū Dharr al-Ghifārī to Rabadha.³¹ 'Uthmān's harsh treatment of these early ṣaḥāba was publicly condemned by 'Ā'isha; other ṣaḥāba who stirred up protest against the caliph include Ṭalḥa b. 'Ubayd Allāh, 'Amr b. al-'Āṣ, and, to a lesser degree, al-Zubayr b. al-'Awwām.³² 'Abd al-Raḥmān b. 'Awf, the ṣaḥābī on the shūrā who essentially appointed 'Uthmān as the successor to 'Umar, stipulated that the caliph was not to lead his funeral prayers, a request that was honored in 32/652–3 and adopted by Ibn Mas'ūd. Madelung reports that the "poor Muhājir" Jahjāh b. Sa'īd al-Ghifārī threw stones at 'Uthmān during one of his "repentence" khutbas³³ and that the ṣaḥābī

supervisor of the public treasury, 'Abdullāh b. Arqam, resigned in protest over 'Uthmān's request to enrich his nephew and brotherin-law 'Abdullāh b. Khālid b. Asīd.³⁴ While these incidents were mild in comparison to the *ridda* wars that preceded, and the civil war that erupted after, the killing of 'Uthmān, they did involve some of the most prestigious *saḥāba* and may have been partly responsible for the failure of the Medinans to protect their caliph from the violent protesters who ultimately killed him.

Five sahāba were involved in the Egyptian delegation and the masses who surrounded 'Uthmān's palace demanding his abdication during the last month of 35/June 656. Madelung reports that the first casualty of the "battle day of the palace" (yawm al-dār) was the ṣahābī Niyār b. 'Iyād, who was killed by a rock dropped from the palace by a client of Marwān b. al-Ḥakam.³⁵ Rifā' b. Rāfi' is also reported to have killed a partisan of 'Uthmān outside the palace, and 'Āmir b. Bukayr is said to have struck Sa'īd b. al-'Āṣ.³⁶ 'Abd al-Raḥmān b. 'Udays is considered to have been among the leaders of the Egyptian delegation, although it is not clear if he was present at the palace on the day of the assassination.³⁷ Even one of the four identified killers of the caliph was none other than 'Amr b. al-Hamiq,

³⁵ Succession, 135. Niyār does not have an entry in the new edition of al-Tabaqāt al-kabīr, but both he and this episode are mentioned in Ibn Ḥajar, al-Iṣāba fī tamyīz al-ṣaḥāba, III (Beirut: Dār al-Fikr, 1978), 578–9.

²⁷ These two men were 'Amr b. Ma'dī Karib and Ṭulayḥa b. Khuwaylid; Ibn Sa'd, *al-Ṭabaqāt al-kubrā*, VIII, 592–5 and VIII, 548–9. Ṭulayḥa's pardon is particularly surprising given the reports that he claimed to be a prophet during the *ridda*.

²⁸ al-Ţabaqāt al-kubrā, VIII, 578-81.

²⁹ al-Ṭabaqāt al-kubrā, VIII, 590-1.

³⁰ al-Tabaqāt al-kubrā, VIII, 555-9.

³¹ Succession, 96 and 109. Both of these men were among the earliest converts to Islam; 'Abdullāh b. Mas'ūd and 'Ammār were among the Muhājirūn who fought at Badr, and Abū Dharr Jundub b. Junāda was a non-Meccan emigrant to Medina who first saw action at Uhud. The beating of 'Ammār, a client of Makhzūm, also generated an angry reaction from the Prophet's Makhzūmī widow Umm Salama; Succession. 96–7.

³² Succession, 90-2, 98-104.

³³ Succession, 124. Ibn Sa'd reports that Jahjāh was a poor emigrant and when he came towards 'Uthmān during a khuṭba, 'Uthmān grabbed his stick and crushed his knees with it; TK 2001, V, 108–9.

³⁴ Succession, 93–4. Madelung reports that the Anṣārī Zayd b. Thābit, whose recension of the Qur'ān was made the official recension to the detriment of the readings of Ibn Mas'ūd and Ubayy b. Ka'b, was sent by 'Uthmān with a large gift in an unsuccessful bid to bring Ibn Arqam to his post. It was probably at this time that Zayd assumed control over the treasury, as he is reported to have been in charge of 'Uthmān's dīwān.

³⁶ Succession, 137. Rifā' b. Rāfi' b. Mālik was a son of one of the twelve nuqabā' of the Anṣār and participated at Badr; al-Ṭabaqāt al-kubrā, III, 302. 'Āmir b. Bukayr is rendered as 'Āmir b. Abī l-Bukayr by Ibn Sa'd (ibid., III, 208) but without the "Abī" and with the definitive article (i.e., al-Bukayr) by Ibn Ḥajar; al-Iṣāba, II, 247. Nothing appears to have been preserved about his life other than the fact that he and his three brothers 'Āqil, Iyās, and 'Ammāla fought at Badr.

³⁷ Succession, 117. Al-Dhahabī quotes Muḥammad al-Dhuhlī as declaring it "unlawful to transmit ḥadīth" from 'Abd al-Raḥmān because he was the "head of the fitna" (lā yaḥillu an yuḥaddatha 'anhu bi-shay'in, huwa ra'su l-fitna); al-Dhahabī, Tārīkh al-Islām wa wafayāt al-mashāhīr wa l-a'lām, ed. 'Umar 'Abd al-Salām Tadmurī, III (Beirut: Dār al-Kitāb al-'Arabī, 1986), 531–2. 'Abd al-Raḥmān b. 'Udays does not receive an entry in the ṣaḥāba sections of al-Tabaqāt al-kabīr, but he is found among those who settled Egypt and identified as the head (ra's) of the Egyptian delegation to 'Uthmān; Ibn Sa'd, al-Tabaqāt al-kubrā, VII, 236. (Thanks to Ibn Ḥajar for this reference in al-Isāba, II. 411).

a late convert to Islam, who, after his own assassination by Ibn Umm al-Hakam in northern Iraq, earned the dubious distinction of being the first man in Islamic history to have his decapitated head sent by post to a ruler.38

Before we delve into the major roles played by the sahāba in the civil war that engulfed the entire four years of 'Alī's counter-caliphate, it would be useful to mention the names of the prominent saḥāba who died of natural causes during 'Uthmān's reign, because their loss was a blow to the leadership of the Muslim community on the eve of a major crisis. Ubayy b. Ka'b, a prominent Qur'an scholar of the Anṣār, and six other less well known participants at Badr passed away in the year 30/650-1.39 Eight major saḥāba died during the crucial years of 32-33/652-4: al-'Abbās b. 'Abd al-Muttalib, Ibn Mas'ūd, 'Abd al-Rahmān b. 'Awf, Abū l-Dardā', Abū Dharr al-Ghifārī, ¹⁰ Salmān al-Fārisī, ¹¹ Abū Sufyān b. Harb, ¹² and al-Miqdād b. 'Amr (d. 33/654). Finally, two famous Ansār, 'Ubāda b. al-Sāmit and Abū Talha Zayd b. Sahl, passed away in 34/654-5.44 Whether these sahāba could have influenced 'Uthmān to change his highly unpopular policies or even abdicate is purely speculative, but there is little doubt that their presence during the siege of 35/656 could have ameliorated the tense situation.

The fourth episode in the unraveling of the unity of the Muslim community during the age when numerous sahāba were still alive was the reluctance of many individuals to offer 'Alī the bay'a after

the killing of 'Uthman. There are five reports found in al-Tabari's Tārīkh al-rusul wa l-mulūk that name individual sahāba who delayed giving 'Alī the bay'a or simply fled to Syria. These reports resurface in several later histories such as al-Mas'ūdī's Murūj al-dhahab, Ibn al-Jawzī's Muntazam, and Ibn Khaldūn's al-I'bar, as well as Madelung's The Succession to Muhammad. The following outline summarizes the content of these five reports:

- A. 'Umar b. Shabba: Sa'd b. Abī Waqqās and 'Abdullāh b. 'Umar delayed the bay'a⁴⁵
- B. 'Abdullah b. al-Ḥasan b. al-Ḥasan: the 'Uthmānī Ansār who delayed the bay'a were⁴⁶
 - l) Hassān b. Thābit
- 6) al-Nu'mān b. Bashīr
- 2) Ka'b b. Mālik
- 7) Zayd b. Thābit
- 3) Maslama b. Mukhallad
- 8) Rāfi' b. Khadīi
- 4) Abū Sa'īd al-Khudrī
- 9) Fadāla b. 'Ubayd 5) Muḥammad b. Maslama 10) Ka'b b. 'Ujra
- C. al-Zuhrī: those Meccans who fled to Syria were⁴⁷
 - 1) Qudāma b. Maz'ūn
 - 2) 'Abdullāh b. Salām
 - 3) al-Mughīra b. Shu'ba
- D. Ibn Sa'd → Wāqidī: those who delayed (tarabbaṣa) giving the bay'a were-18
 - 1) Sa'd b. Abī Waggās
- 5) Muhammad b. Maslama
- 2) 'Abdullāh b. 'Umar
- 6) Salama b. Waqsh⁴⁹
- 3) Suhayb b. Sinān
- 7) Usāma b. Zayd
- 4) Zayd b. Thābit
- E. Sayf b. 'Umar: The Medinese tried to give the bay'a to Sa'd b. Abī Waqqās or Ibn 'Umar, but they both refused to accept it.50

³⁸ Succession, 118, 138-9. The story about 'Amr's head is found also in al-Tabagāt al-kubrā, VIII, 599.

³⁹ Al-Tabagāt al-kubrā, III, 259-61. Other death dates for Ubayy include 19 or 20 (Ibn Ma'īn) and 22 (al-Wāqidī, on the authority of Ubayy's descendents, and Ibn Hibban); Ibn 'Abd al-Barr thought that he died during the caliphate of 'Umar, while Ibn Hajar follows Abu Nu'aym and states that the most accurate date is 30; al-Isāba, I, 19-20. The six remaining "men of Badr" who died this year are Hātib b. Abī Balta'a, 'Abdullāh b. Maz'ūn, Ma'mar b. Abī Sarḥ, 'Iyāḍ b. Zuhayr, Mas'ūd b. al-Rabī', and Jabbār b. Şakhr; al-Tabagāt al-kubrā, III, 61, 214, 222, 89-90, and 293. Note that an additional fourteen sahāba who fought at Badr are reported by Ibn Sa'd to have died at sometime during the reign of 'Uthman.

⁴⁰ Obituaries for these first five men can be found in this sequence in al-Dhahabī, Tārīkh al-Islām, III, 373-414.

¹¹ Ibn al-Jawzī, al-Muntazam fī tārīkh al-umam wa l-mulūk, V (Beirut: Dār al-Kutub al-'Ilmiyya, 1992), 20-27.

⁴² Al-Tabagāt al-kubrā, VIII, 481-5.

⁴³ Al-Tabagāt al-kubrā, III, 85-7.

⁴⁴ Al-Tabagāt al-kubrā, III, 280-1 and 262-4, respectively. Note that 'Ubāda was the last surviving member of the twelve nuqabā' of the Ansār, and that some say that he lived until the reign of Mu'awiya.

⁴⁵ Tārīkh al-Ṭabarī, I, 425 (3070); al-Masʿūdī, Murūj al-dhahab wa maʿādin al-jawāhir, II (Beirut: Dar al-Nahhas, 1965), 353; Ibn Khaldun, Tarīkh al-allama Ibn Khaldun, II (Beirut: Dar al-Kitab al-Lubnani, 1956), 1055.

⁴⁶ Tārīkh al-Tabarī, I, 430-1 (3070); Mas'ūdī, II, 353; Ibn Khaldūn, II, 1055; Succession, 146. Note that Ibn Khaldun adds Salama b. Salāma b. Wikhsh to this

⁴⁷ Tārīkh al-Ṭabarī, I, 430 (3070); Mas'ūdī, II, 353; al-Muntazam, V, 64; Ibn Khaldūn, II, 1055; Succession, 148.

⁴⁸ Tārīkh al-Tabarī, I, 431 (3072); al-Muntazam, V, 64; Succession, 146. Ibn Khaldūn only mentions Suhayb and Usama b. Zayd among these seven; Tarīkh al-'allāma Ibn Khaldūn, II, 1055.

⁴⁹ Ibn al-Jawzī substitutes Muslim b. Salām for him.

⁵⁰ Tārīkh al-Ṭabarī, I, 432 (3073-4). Mas'ūdī adds to these names Ahbāb b. Sayfī, Sa'īd b. al-'Āṣ, and al-Walīd b. 'Uqba; Murūj al-dhahab, II, 353-4.

There appears to be a relatively high degree of consensus as to the identity of these $sah\bar{a}ba$ who delayed giving their oath of allegiance to 'Alī or simply fled the Hijāz.⁵¹ We must add to this list, of course, Mu'āwiya b. Abī Sufyān in Syria and 'Amr b. al-'Āṣ, who was probably at his estate in Palestine. The question as to whether Talha and al-Zubayr gave their bay'a under the sword of al-Ashtar or by their own will is unclear, as there are reports that support both possibilities, but their departure from Medina and subsequent armed insurrection left 'Alī in the awkward position of lacking the support of any of the three surviving members of the $sh\bar{u}r\bar{a}$ that elected 'Uthmān to the caliphate or of the Meccan Qurayshī aristocracy.

The fifth, and possibly most traumatic conflict between the $sah\bar{a}ba$, was the Battle of the Camel in 36/656. Unlike the ridda wars, which involved large Muslim armies against a few late-conversion $sah\bar{a}ba$, most of whom were subsequently forgiven, the Battle of the Camel involved prominent $sah\bar{a}b\bar{a}$ leaders and soldiers. Three groups of $sah\bar{a}ba$ can be discerned in this conflict. The smallest group consists of Abū Mūsā l-Ash'arī, 'Imrān b. Ḥuṣayn, and Abū Bakra al-Thaqafī, as well as the $sah\bar{a}ba$ listed above who delayed giving the bay'a to 'Alī, all of whom refused to fight on either side of the battle. While it is not likely that the participation of these individuals would have altered the outcome of the battle, their decision to remain neutral ($i'tiz\bar{a}l$) was admired greatly by later Murji'a and Sunnīs who were gravely distressed by the problem of intra- $sah\bar{a}ba$ warfare.

The losing side of the Camel was led by 'Ā'isha, Talha, al-Zubayr, and 'Abdullāh b. al-Zubayr, half of whom perished in this event. It was financed largely by 'Uthmān's governors to Yemen, two sahāba named Ya'lā b. Umayya and 'Abdullāh b. Abī Rabī'a, who seized the treasury upon hearing of their caliph's murder and returned to Mecca. The first casualty occurred prior to the arrival of 'Alī's army when the sahābī Hukaym b. Jabala was killed and 'Uthmān b. Hunayf abused in the rebels' assault on the granary of Basra.

One of the leaders of this raid was the saḥābī Mujāshi' b. Mas'ūd Sulamī, and both he and his brother Mujālid were killed in the Battle of the Camel fighting against 'Alī. 55 At least three additional saḥāba were killed fighting against 'Alī at the Camel, one of whom was a brother of 'Abd al-Raḥmān b. 'Awf. 56 Finally, 'Ā'isha's brother 'Abd al-Raḥmān, who fought against the Muslims at Badr and Uḥud and did not embrace Islam until just prior to the conquest of Mecca, fought on his sister's side and escaped the battle with his life intact. 57

The leadership of 'Alī's camp who were saḥāba include his sons al-Ḥasan and al-Ḥusayn, cousin 'Abdullāh b. 'Abbās, and the early convert 'Ammār b. Yāsir. His appointed governors include both early Anṣar, such as Sahl and 'Uthmān b. Ḥunayf, and Qays b. Sa'd b. 'Ubāda, as well as the Hāshimīs 'Ubayd Allāh b. 'Abbās in Ṣan'ā' and Qutham b. 'Abbās in Mecca. 58 Two over-enthusiastic saḥāba on 'Alī's side were the regicidal 'Amr b. al-Ḥamiq and Ḥujr b. 'Adī, the latter of whom achieved prominence for his refusal to curse 'Alī and subsequent execution by Mu'āwiya. 59 Abū Qatāda b. al-Rib'ī, who was by the Prophet's side from the time of Uḥud, and Sulaymān b. Ṣurād may also have fought on behalf of 'Alī at the Camel. 60 Finally, Sa'd b. Abī Waqqāṣ's nephew Hāshim b. 'Utba survived the

Note that Ibn Sa'd states that several of these men, such as Sa'd b. Abī Waqqāṣ, Usāma b. Zayd, Muḥammad b. Maslama, and Zayd b. Thābit, all gave the bay'a to 'Alī without any mention of a delay; al-Tabaqāt al-kubrā, III, 19.

⁵² Succession, 165-6 (Abū Mūsā), 161 ('Imrān), 167 (Abū Bakra).
⁵³ Succession, 155. Ibn Abī l-Rabī'a is reported to have fallen off of a camel and broken a thigh, thus preventing him from joining the rebels in person; Ya'lā fled when the defeat was inevitable.

⁵⁴ Succession, 163. 'Uthmān b. Hunayf was 'Alī's appointed governor to Basra

from the Anṣār. He had served under 'Umar in the organization of the kharāj of Iraq and the assessment of the poll tax on non-Muslims. His first battle with the Prophet was Uḥud; TK 2001, IV, 304-6. Ḥukaym's status as a ṣaḥābī is somewhat tenuous and he is not mentioned by Ibn Sa'd in al-Ṭabaqāt al-kabīr, see instead al-Iṣāba, I, 379.

³⁵ Succession, 162-3. Both men are found among the saḥāba who converted after the conquest of Mecca in al-Tabaqāt al-kubrā, VIII, 561.

⁵⁶ The men are al-Aswad b. 'Awf (TK 2001, V, 19-20; Tārīkh al-Islām, III, 491; Succession, 177), 'Abd al-Rahmān b. 'Attāb (Tārīkh al-Islām, III, 530-1; Succession, 176), and 'Abdullāh b. Khalaf al-Khuzā'ī (Succession, 173).

⁵⁷ Succession, 164; TK 2001, V, 21-5.

³⁸ See, for example, Ibn al-Jawzī, al-Muntazam, V, 75 and Ibn Khaldūn, II, 1058–61. 'Ubayd Allāh b. 'Abbās was one year younger than his famous brother 'Abdullāh and was thirteen when the Prophet died; TK 2001, VI, 348. Qutham led numerous raids into Khurāsān for the Umayyads and died in Samarqand during the reign of 'Abd al-Malik b. Marwān; TK 2001, VI, 349–50.

⁵⁹ Hujr b. 'Adī receives entries both as a sahābī and a tābi'ī in al-Tabaqāt al-kubrā, VI, 468-70 and VIII, 582. Ibn Ḥajar does include him as a sahābī in al-Iṣāba, I, 314-5. The story of his execution is found in the first of these references.

⁶⁰ Succession, 164-5 (Abū Qatāda). Ibn Sa'd puts Sulaymān at the Camel, pace Madelung (p. 183); al-Tabaqāt al-kubrā, IV, 465. Sulaymān is also credited with having written the invitation to Ḥusayn b. 'Alī to liberate Kuſa and then ſailing to appear in his moment of need; later, Ibn Sa'd reports, he led the tauwābūn. Sulaymān embraced Islam prior to the conquest of Mecca and lived until 54/674.

Camel, while the venerable Qur'ān-reciter Zayd b. Ṣūḥān did not.⁶¹ While this day of warfare broke the taboo of large-scale bloodshed between ṣaḥābī-led and manned armies, few could have expected the far greater losses of life that haunted the remainder of 'Alī's brief counter-caliphate.

The sixth internecine conflict followed upon the precedent of the Battle of the Camel and found two sahābī-led armies engaged in open warfare. 62 The Battle of Siffin differed from that of the Camel in two important respects: first, it lasted several days and was inconclusive, and secondly, the opposition to 'Alī was led by a late convert to Islam and son of an enemy of the Prophet Muhammad as opposed to two of the earliest Muslims and a wife of the Prophet. Despite these differences, the same three groups of sahāba that were found at the Camel persisted, with the neutrals gaining 'Alī's failed ambassador to Mu'āwiya, Jarīr b. 'Abdullāh al-Bajalī. Mu'āwiya's leadership included the sahāba 'Amr b. al-'Ās, his son 'Abdullāh, and 'Uthmān's alcoholic uterine brother al-Walīd b. 'Ugba. Ibn Sa'd mentions three sahāba who fought with Mu'āwiya at Siffīn and survived: the post-Meccan conquest converts 'Adī b. 'Amīra b. Farwa, Zaml b. 'Amr, and 'Ugba b. 'Āmir. 63 One more potential sahābī on the side of Mu'āwiya who did not survive Şiffīn was al-Samayfa' b. Nākūr, more commonly known as Dhū l-Kalā' al-Ḥimyarī, a powerful leader of the Yemenis in Hims.64

Although al-Mas'ūdī's assertion that 2800 sahāba were with 'Alī at Siffin, twenty-five of whom were killed, is almost certainly an exaggeration, there were certainly more sahābī-casualties on the Iraqī side of the battlefield. 65 The most famous loss was the ancient 'Ammār b. Yāsir, whose martyrdom at the hands of the "astray group" (alfi'atu l-bāghiya) was predicted in a widely circulated hadīth.66 Hāshim b. 'Utba b. Abī Waqqās was not so lucky this day, nor were the Ansārīs Abū 'Amra Bashīr b. 'Amr, 67 Khuzayma b. Thābit, 68 and Sa'd b. al-Hārith b. al-Simma.⁶⁹ The spokesman for the Ansār was a veteran of Badr, Sahl b. Hunayf, who had served as 'Alī's governor of Medina during the battle of the Camel,70 and one of the major generals was the former Yemeni apostate al-Ash'ath b. Qays.71 'Alī was also blessed with the support of a powerful chief of the Tayy', 'Adī b. Hātim, a late convert and veteran of the victory of Qādisiyya,72 as well as the battle-toughened Ḥujr b. 'Adī and Sulaymān b. Surād. Three additional confirmed or potential sahāba are mentioned by al-Dhahabī among those killed at Siffin fighting against Mu'āwiya.73 Despite the fact that several of 'Alī's most cherished partisans, such as Muhammad b. Abī Bakr and al-Ashtar, were not sahāba, the loss of a group of his most energetic supporters with

⁶¹ Succession, 234 (Hāshim). Zayd b. Ṣūḥān's status as a ṣaḥābī is unclear; Ibn Ḥajar included him in the third class, namely those who were alive prior to and contemporary with the revelation of the Qur'ān but who are not recorded as having met the Prophet Muḥammad; al-Iṣāba, I, 582-3. See also al-Dhahabī, Tānkh al-Islām, III, 508-9.

⁶² The role of the *sahāba* in this conflict, the Battle of Şiffīn, has received recently a thorough study by Fu'ad Jabali entitled "A Study of the Companions of the Prophet: Geographical Distribution and Political Alignments" (Unpublished Ph.D. dissertation, McGill University, 1999). Jabali analyzes the classical biographical dictionaries of Ibn Sa'd, Ibn 'Abd al-Barr, Ibn al-Athīr, al-Dhahabī, and Ibn Ḥajar and verifies a minimum of 123 *sahāba*, 43 of whom were early converts, with 'Alī, 31 with Mu'āwiya, and 7 neutral at Şiffīn (pp. 218, 237, and 241).

[&]quot;Al-Tabaqāt al-kubrā, VIII, 583, 611 and IV, 489, respectively. 'Adī b. 'Amīra was among one of several clans of Kinda that left Kufa for Edessa when 'Alī's partisans arrived and began to insult 'Uthmān. His son 'Adī b. 'Adī was a pious friend of 'Umar b. 'Abd al-'Azīz and later governor of northern Iraq under Sulaymān b. 'Abd al-Malik. Zaml is reported to have appeared at Siffin with a banner given to him by the Prophet, and his grandson Mudlij b. al-Miqdād b. Zaml was a notable (shanīf) in Syria. 'Uqba b. 'Āmir of Qudā'a built a house and settled in Egypt after Siffin, where he died during the reign of Mu'āwiya.

ⁿ⁺ Al-Dhahabī, Tārīkh al-Islām, III, 565-6. Madelung interprets his death as being

appreciated by Mu'āwiya since he was a potential rival for power in Hims; Succession, 234-5.

⁶⁵ Mas'ūdī, III, 352.

⁶⁶ This report is found with various isnāds in al-Tabaqāt al-kubrā, III, 134-5; Fath al-bārī, II, 111; Ṣaḥāḥ Muslim bi-sharh al-Nawawī, XVIII, 32-3; and Ibn Abī Shayba, al-Kītāb al-muṣannaf fī l-aḥādīth wa l-āthār, VII, 547 and 551.

⁶⁷ TK 2001, V, 321; Tārīkh al-Islām, III, 585; Succession, 143.

⁶⁸ Al-Tabaqāt al-kubrā, IV, 503-5; Tārākh al-Islām, 564-6; Succession, 215. Khuzayma was known as the "possessor of two witnesses" (dhū l-shahādatayn) due to the report that he was a unique source for several verses of Sūrat al-Tawba (9) during 'Uthmān's drive to compile an official codex. He entered Islam after Uhud and prior to the conquest of Mecca.

⁶⁹ TK 2001, V, 321.

⁷⁰ Succession, 215; al-Tabaqāt al-kubrā, III, 247-8. Sahl's death a year after Şiffīn must have been a major blow to 'Alī's troubled counter-caliphate.

⁷¹ Al-Ash'ath is credited with forcing 'Alī to accept the arbitration agreement and to appoint the "neutral" Abū Mūsā l-Ash'arī as his representative, two actions which, in hindsight, had disastrous consequences for 'Alī's fledgling regime; Succession, 239-42.

⁷² Succession, 240; al-Ṭabaqāt al-kubrā, VIII, 571-6.

⁷³ 'Abdullāh b. Budayl (Succession, 232-3; Tārīkh al-Islām, III, 567); Jundab b. Zuhayr (Tārīkh al-Islām, III, 568); 'Abdullāh b. Ka'b al-Murādī (ibid., III, 568). Al-Dhahabī is uncertain whether these last two men were saḥāba, while Ibn Ḥajar confirms that both of them were Companions; al-Isāba, I, 248 and II, 363.

whom he had fought the clan of Mu'āwiya both in the Prophet's day and thirty years later severely weakened his camp and may have been part of the reason why al-Ḥasan saw little reason to continue shedding Muslim blood for the acquisition of the caliphate after his father's murder.

The last episode of intra-sahāba conflict is less precise than the battles and succession disputes and concerns the raids that occurred in the wake of the inconclusive battle of Siffin. The most vicious of these raids, called ghārāt, at least according to Madelung, was that of the sahābī Busr b. Abī Artāt.74 This raid was ordered by Mu'āwiya in 40/660-1; it included a compulsory bay'a to Mu'āwiya by the people of Medina and the massacre of an unspecified number of 'Alid supporters in the Hijāz and Yemen. Abū Hurayra is reported to have been the temporary governor of Medina set up by Busr, an association of which later Sunnī scholars may not have been particularly proud. 75 Another early sahābī who may have led propaganda raids in favor of Mu'āwiya was al-Nu'mān Bashīr, who is reported by Madelung to have led one such expedition with Abū Hurayra.⁷⁶ On the other side of the struggle, 'Alī's massacre of the Khawārii at Nahrawan in 38/658, not only put a stain on his pious image but ultimately planted the seeds of his own assassination; the deafening lack of support he received from the remaining early sahāba could only have demoralized him in his final months of struggle against all sides.

This brief historical survey of seven episodes of intra-Muslim conflict that unfolded during the first thirty years after Muḥammad's death should be seen both as an effort to highlight the entrenched role of the saḥāba on opposite sides of battle, as well as demonstrate the deep insight of Madelung's prosoprographical tour de force that has been written off by some scholars as a mere pro-Shī'ī tract. A serious

problem facing the second, third, and every successive generation of Muslims has been one of historiography: how does one make sense of the struggles between the witnesses of Muḥammad? In my opinion, both Madelung and Jafri deserve credit for their arguments that the struggles for the leadership of the Muslim community emerged the day the Prophet died and not during the second half of 'Uthmān's caliphate, as is generally depicted in Western sources. I shall devote the rest of this chapter to elucidating how the compilers of the earliest extant books explained these rather serious intra-ṣaḥāba "quarrels" in the course of the third/ninth century and focus in particular on the interpretive strategies deployed by the Imāmī Shī'a, Zaydiyya/Baghdādī Mu'tazila, and Sunnī ḥadīth scholars.

VI.3 Two minority solutions: The Imāmī Shī'a and Zaydiyya/Baghdādī Mu'tazila

VI.3.1

Why are the historiographical solutions to the problem of intra-sahāba conflict put forth by the Imāmī Shī'a and the Zaydiyya/Baghdādī Mu'tazila of relevance to this study? Is not this discourse a question of creed ('aqīda) rather than fundamentals of religion (uṣūl al-dīn)? How is it possible that the three radically different interpretations of the nature of the saḥāba that Muslims articulated during the early centuries of Islam determined to a large degree the nature of both religious law (sharī'a) and Qur'ānic exegesis?

Given the fact that all knowledge of the Prophet's practice, or sunna, is accessible solely through reports from contemporary witnesses, and, that these witnesses are all by definition sahāba, the rejection of any sahābī's religious authority inevitably eliminates a body of reports and thus potentially invalidates practices performed by the Prophet that would otherwise have had a legal value. Since it is impossible to articulate the sharī'a solely on the basis of the Qur'ān,

Succession, 299–307. Busr is found in the last class of sahāba, namely those who were children at the time of the death of the Prophet Muḥammad; TK 2001, VI, 539–40. His raid is mentioned by Ibn Sa'd, who observes that he killed a hundred men of Banū Ka'b who had supported 'Alī after 'Alī was killed. Even al-Bukhārī mentions the killing of 'Ubayd Allāh b. 'Abbās's two young sons in this raid; see al-Bukhārī, al-Tārikh al-awsat, I, 186–8.

⁷⁵ Succession, 301.

⁷⁶ Succession, 287, 301. Al-Nu'mān was the first Anṣārī born after the Hijra and was only eight years old at the time of the Prophet's death; *al-Ṭabaqāt al-kubrā*, IV, 479–88.

⁷⁷ Kennedy's *The Prophet and the Age of the Caliphates* provides a good example of this habit; the violent nature of the Saqīfa is sanitized, the disinheritance of 'Alī is left unspoken (although he does call 'Umar's selection of Abū Bakr a *coup d'état*), and the heading for 'Uthmān's reign is called "'Uthmān and the beginnings of internal strife." See Kennedy, *The Prophet and the Age of the Caliphates*, 50–69.

these reports are necessary in order for Muslims to perform basic practices, such as prayer, almsgiving, and the pilgrimage, with any degree of cohesion. While this book is hardly the place to examine the full impact of the Imāmī Shī'ī and Zaydī/Baghdādī Mu'tazilī attitudes towards the sahāba upon their respective constructions of Islamic law, I will show the profound impact these attitudes had on Qur'ānic exegesis in the case of the first group and examine how both the Zaydīs and Sunnīs established the authority of the vast majority of the sahāba so as to salvage the legal value of their prophetic reports that had amassed during the first three centuries of Islam.

VI.3.2 The Imāmī Shī'a and the sahāba

A very brief historical survey of the development of Imāmī Shī'ism prior to its crystallization during the dawn of the Greater Occultation of the twelfth Imam around 329/941 is necessary in order to comprehend the impact of its radical rejection of the authority of virtually all of the saḥāba. Hossein Modarressi argues that a distinct Imāmī legal school did not exist prior to the time of the fifth Imām Muḥammad b. 'Alī al-Bāgir (Imām from 95-114/714-32) and Etan Kohlberg credits this Imam with the origination of the idea of the apostasy of all but a handful of saḥāba.79 The period of the sixth Imām, Ja'far al-Şādiq (Imām from 114-48/732-65), witnessed both the proliferation of legal reports as well as the rise of what Modarressi identifies as the mufawwida movement that attributed supernatural powers to the Imāms.80 This movement achieved its breakthrough after the death of 'Alī al-Ridā (d. 203/818), when it asserted that the miraculous succession of the seven-year-old Muhammad al-Jawād was due to 'divine grace', and blossomed throughout the third/ninth century.81 The reaction against the mufawwida was located among the scholars of Qumm, whose insistence on the treatment of the Imāms

as mere human legal authorities rather than "God's delegated authorities" earned them the pejorative title muqassira, or "short-changers."82 The mufawwida were aided by the theories of Hishām b. al-Hakam (d. 179/795-6), one of which was that the sahāba actually became disbelievers (kuffār) due to their rejection of 'Alī's imamate at the death of the Prophet Muhammad.83 The struggle between the mufawwida and mugassira peaked during the Lesser Occultation (260-329/ 874-941) and climaxed with the former's victory in the publication of Muhammad al-Kulaynī's book al-Kāfī, held by the Imāmī Shī'a as the first of their four canonical hadīth books.84 Despite the triumph of Kulaynī's mufawwida masterpiece, the early mugassira attitude has been preserved in al-Kashshī's (d. fourth/tenth century) biographical dictionary, and the following comparison of these two books with regard to their attitudes towards the saḥāba reveals only minor differences between these two early Imāmī Shī'ī schools of thought on this topic.

Etan Kohlberg's identification of five strategies employed by early Imāmī Shī'a to discredit the authority of the saḥāba merits a brief note prior to our discussion of the Uṣūl al-kāfī of al-Kulaynī and al-Ṭūsī's Ikhtiyār ma'rifat al- rijāl (rijāl al-Kashshī). The first two of these techniques were the claims of the collective apostasy of the saḥāba and their loss of faith (īmān) due to their failure to recognized the Imāmate of 'Alī. A third method was to identify the saḥāba with the Qur'ānic class of people known as "hypocrites" (munāfiqūn) due to their lack of loyalty to 'Alī, as well as on the basis of the modification of a well known story of the hypocrites' effort to kill the Prophet to involve fourteen famous saḥāba. 85 Another creative technique was to

⁷⁸ It is striking that the fast of Ramaḍān is the only pillar of Islam that is thoroughly articulated in the Qur'ān and in theory is free from any reliance upon prophetic reports; see Sūrat al-Baqara (2):183–7. In practice, of course, all topically-organized hadāth books have at least one chapter on fasting.

⁷⁹ Hossein Modarressi, Crisis and Consolidation in the Formative Period of Shiite Islam (Princeton: Darwin, 1993), 4; Etan Kohlberg, "Some Imāmī Shī'ī views of the ṣaḥāba," JSAI, 5 (1984), 147.

⁸⁰ Crisis and Consolidation, 21.

⁸¹ Crisis and Consolidation, 32-3.

¹¹² Crisis and Consolidation, 39.

[&]quot;Some Imāmī Shī'ī views of the saḥāba," 148.

^{**}Crisis and Consolidation, 42-7. For the status of this book as 'canonical' see Moojan Momen, An Introduction to Shī'ī Islam (New Haven: Yale University Press, 1985), 174. Note that Sunnīs probably would not call call this a hadīth book, since virtually none of the reports are prophetic locutions or practices but rather quotes of the Imāms Muḥammad Bāqir, Ja'far al-Ṣādiq, and 'Alī al-Riḍā.

[&]quot;Some Imāmī Shī'ī views of the ṣaḥāba," 151-4. The fourteen men who were named regularly are Abū Bakr, 'Umar, 'Uthmān, Ṭalḥa, 'Abd al-Raḥmān b. 'Awf, Sa'd b. Abī Waqqāṣ, Abū 'Ubayda, Mu'āwiya, 'Amr b. al-'Āṣ, Abū Mūsā l-Ash'arī, al-Mughīra b. Shu'ba, Aws b. Ḥadathān al-Nāṣirī, Abū Hurayra, and Abū Ṭalḥa al-Anṣārī. 'Ā'isha also has a negative role in this episode. Six ṣaḥāba are recognized in a positive light, however, for their supposed recognition of 'Alī as the Prophet's successor: Salmān al-Fārisī, Abū Dharr al-Ghifārī, Khuzayma b. Thābit, Abū l-Haytham al-Tayyihān, 'Ammār b. Yāsir, and al-Miqdād b. 'Amr.

restrict the meaning of saḥāba in pro-ṣaḥāba ḥadīth to the Prophet's family (ahl al-bayt). The final, and most extreme interpretation, involved the dualist notion of opposites (aḍdād), namely that every good figure had his or her evil opposite. While this theory worked well with characters such as Adam and Satan, at least one radical Shī'ī interpreted the "good" to include Muḥammad, 'Alī, al-Ḥasan, al-Ḥusayn, and Fāṭima and their evil opposites as Abū Bakr, 'Umar, 'Uthmān, Mu'āwiya, and 'Amr b. al-'Āṣ. 86 My investigation of the Uṣūl al-kāfī and Ikhtiyār ma'rifat al-rijāl demonstrates the utilization of the first four of these techniques of discrediting the ṣaḥāba among both the mufawwiḍa and muqaṣṣira schools of early Imāmī thought.

The most striking feature of Ikhtiyār ma^crifat al-rijāl of al-Kashshī with respect to the saḥāba is the extraordinary interpretation of the "apostasy wars" (ridda) immediately following the death of the Prophet Muhammad. Several reports on the authorities of Muhammad al-Bāqir and his son Ja'far al-Ṣādiq state explicitly that all of the sahāba, even 'Ammār b. Yāsir, apostatized except Salmān al-Fārisī, Abū Dharr al-Ghifārī, and al-Migdād b. al-Aswad.⁸⁷ Several of the reports also mention that four more sahāba repented from this act, thus fulfilling 'Alī b. Abī Tālib's prophesy that "seven will inherit the earth, aid you, and cause rain to fall."88 These men are identified in a couple of reports as Abū Sāsān, 'Ammār b. Yāsir, Shutayra, and Abū 'Amra, and al-Kashshī quotes Muḥammad al-Bāqir as saying that only these seven men recognized 'Alī's claim (haqq).89 Only three of these men-Salman, Abu Dharr, and 'Ammar-receive significant attention in al-Kashshī's work, and it is striking that absolutely nothing is said about al-Miqdad. 90 Despite al-Kashshi's

⁸⁶ "Some Imāmī Shī'ī views of the ṣaḥāba," 165. Kohlberg notes on the next page that the concept of $add\bar{a}d$ was adopted by the Ismā'īlīs.

assertion of the mass apostasy of the $sah\bar{a}ba$, ten or so additional Companions do receive some positive attention in the pages that follow, and it is to these men that we shall now turn.

Al-Kashshī's depiction of a small group of saḥāba in a positive light reflects a degree of moderation within the mugassira Imāmī Shī'ī interpretation of ridda. Salmān al-Fārisī towers above all of the other men, as he alone is identified as a muhaddath. 91 deflates Ouravshī arrogance in a conversation with 'Umar b. al-Khattāb, and even chastises the people for having "fled from the Our'an to the hadith."92 Abū Dharr is depicted as teaching the Prophet a supplication, telling people to "adhere to the Book of God and Shaykh 'Alī" in the event of civil discord (fitna), and rejecting a 200 dīnār gift from 'Uthmān on the grounds that "the walaya of 'Alī and the rightly-guided family ('itra)" made him wealthy.93 We have just encountered several of these men, such as Hudhayfa b. al-Yamān, Sahl b. Hunayf, Khuzayma b. Thabit, 'Amr b. al-Hamiq, among the loyal soldiers or partisans of 'Alī in his wars, while others, such as Bilāl, Usāma b. Zayd, Abū Sa'īd al-Khudrī, and Jābir b. 'Abdullāh come as a bit of a surprise.94 Jābir is depicted particularly well as exhorting the Ansār to teach their children to love 'Alī and being personally close with the young Muhammad al-Bāgir in Medina. Four additional Ansār who testified

Muhammad B. al-Hasan al-Tūsī, *Ikhtiyār ma'rifat al-rijāl (rijāl al-Kashshī)*, ed. Hasan Muştfā (Mashhad, 1348), 6–12. The question of 'Ammār's apostasy is found in reports on the authority of Muhammad Bāgir; *ibid.*, 8–9 and 11–12.

⁸⁸ dāqat al-ardu bi-sab'atin bi-him turzaqūna wa bi-him tunṣarūna wa bi-him tumṭarūn minhum Salmān al-Fārisī wa l-Miqdād wa Abū Dharr wa 'Ammār wa Hudhayſa wa kāna 'Alī yaqūlu wa anā imāmuhum wa hum alladhīna ṣallū 'alā Fāṭima; Ikhtiyār ma'riſat al-rijāl, 6-7. It is not clear from this report whether 'Alī provided the names of his companions or a later Imām did so.

⁸⁹ Ikhtiyār ma'rifat al-rijāl, 7 and 11-2.

⁹⁰ Ikhtiyār ma'rifat al-rijāl, 12-24 (Salmān); 24-9 (Abū Dharr); 29-36 ('Ammār). Note that most of the reports in 'Ammār's section have Sunnī isnāds and are hadīth found in the Sunnī fadā'il literature, such as his last drink being milk, his nickname

as al-Ṭayyib b. al-Ṭayyib (Good son of Good), and that the party who kills him is astray. The absence of reports pertaining to the virtues of al-Miqdād could very well be the editorial work of al-Ṭūsī, and may not reflect an act of negligence on the part of al-Kashshī.

⁹¹ Ikhtiyār ma'rifat al-rijāl, 12, 15-6, and 19. Al-Kashshī explains in a report on page three that a muḥaddath (literally, "one who is told") is someone who "is made to comprehend" (mufahham). Most of the reports say that Salmān achieved this state from an Imām, although one does say it was from an angel; ibid., 19. William Graham has observed that 'Umar b. al-Khatṭāb is identified as a muḥaddath in the Sahīhs of al-Bukhārī and Muslim; see his Divine Word and Prophetic Word in Early Islam (Paris, 1977), 37.

⁹² harabtum min al-Qur'ān ilā l-ahādīth; Ikhtiyār ma'rifat al-rijāl, 18.

⁹³ Ikhtiyār ma'rifat al-rijāl, 25-8.

⁹⁴ Ikhtiyār ma'rīfat al-nyāl, 36-44. Usāma b. Zayd is mentioned in direct contrast with Muḥammad b. Maslama, Ibn 'Umar, and Sa'd b. Abī Waqqāş who continued in error and did not receive any of the fay' per 'Alī's instructions; ibid., 39. Likewise, Bilāl is contrasted with Şuhayb, whose bad deed in the eyes of al-Bāqir was weeping over the death of 'Umar, and Hudhayfa is contrasted with Ibn Mas'di who erred by following the opinions of the masses (al-qawm); ibid., 38-9. This report also includes a useful list of sixteen saḥāba who returned to 'Alī (called al-sābiqūn, from Sūrat al-Wāqi'a [56]:10) according to the third/ninth century Imāmī scholar al-Faḍl b. Shādhān.

to the veracity of the Prophet's statement at Ghadīr Khumm that "Alī was the patron of everyone whose patron was Muḥammad" are contrasted with Anas b. Malik and al-Bara' b. 'Āzib, both of whom refused to accept the validity of this prophetic statement and subsequently succumbed to leprosy and blindness. Finally, al-Kashshī includes reports in which Ibn 'Abbās' extraordinary knowledge of the Qur'ān is challenged by 'Alī b. al-Ḥusayn, and in which he scolds 'Ā'isha after the Battle of the Camel severely. Despite these positive qualities, Ibn 'Abbās's controversial confiscation of a good portion of the Basran treasury is commented upon rather melancholically by 'Alī b. Abī Ṭālib: "This is a nephew of the Messenger of Allah! He did what he did despite his great knowledge and capacity—How will those who are inferior to him believe?"

Al-Kulavnī's Usūl al-kāfī takes a hardline mufawwida departure from al-Kashshī's praise of a dozen pro-'Alī sahāba. In fact, al-Kulaynī's primary approach to the sahāba is exclusion, for they are rendered invisible by the blinding praise showered upon the twelve Imams. His method of achieving this outcome is twofold, namely establishing the religious obligation of obedience to an Imam and then employing quixotic Qur'anic exegesis in order to uncover dozens of secret references to the twelve Imams. The first stage of this process consists of seventeen reports on the authority of Muhammad al-Bāqir and Ja'far al-Sādiq stating in various, concise ways the necessity of obeving an Imam. Examples include "We are a people whom God has made obligatory to obey"99 and "whoever recognizes us is a Believer, whoever rejects us is a disbeliever, and whoever neither recognizes nor rejects us is astray."100 Particularly conspicuous in this section is the interpretation of "those of you who are in authority" in the Qur'anic verse "O you who believe! Obey Allah, and obey the Messenger, and those of you who are in authority . . ." (4:59) as a proof-text for the obligatory obedience to the Imāms. 101 One particularly interesting report has Ja'far arguing that the Qur'ān is not a proof (hujja) without an interpreter (qayyim) and that since only 'Alī knew the entire Qur'ān, he was the proof after the Prophet. 102 What makes this report special is that Ja'far felt compelled to remark that neither Ibn Mas'ūd, 'Umar, nor Ḥudhayfa knew the entire Qur'ān, despite their well-known erudition, something that illustrates how al-Kulaynī kept the ṣaḥāba at the margins of his text under the lock and key of his superhuman Imāms.

Should the reader of *Uṣūl al-kāfī* remain unconvinced of the religious obligation upon Muslims to obey the Imāms from these seventeen reports, she is in store for an even larger surprise in the chapter elucidating the pillars (da'ā'im) of Islam. The primary report used in this section is a modification of Ibn 'Umar's famous hadīth:

Islām has been built upon five [pillars]: testifying that there is no god but Allāh and that Muḥammad is the Messenger of Allāh, performing the prayers, paying *zakāt*, making the pilgrimage to the House, and fasting Ramaḍān.¹⁰³

This report is transmitted by Muḥammad al-Bāqir as follows:

Islam has been built upon five [pillars]: prayers, zakāt, fasting, pilgrimage, and the walāya—nobody will be questioned about anything as severely as they will be questioned about the walāya!¹⁰⁴

⁹⁵ man kuntu mawlāhu fa 'Alī mawlāhu; see Succession, 253. This hadīth is found in both the Musnad of Ibn Ḥanbal and Jāmi' of al-Tirmidhī.

^{**} Ikhtiyār ma'rifat al-rijāl, 45. These four sahāba are Abū Ayyūb al-Anṣārī, Khuzyama b. Thābit, Qays b. Sa'd b. 'Ubāda, and 'Abdullāh b. Budayl.

⁹⁷ Ikhtiyār ma'rifat al-rijāl, 53-63.

⁹⁸ hādhā ibnu 'ammi rasūli llāhi fī 'ilmihi wa qadrihi yaf 'alu mithla hādhā fa-kayfa yu'minu man kāna dūnah? Ikhtiyār ma'rifat al-rijāl, 60.

[&]quot; naḥnu qawmun faraḍa llāhu tā'atanā; Muḥammad al-Kulaynī, Uṣūl al-kāfī, I (Tehran, 1376), 208, 210.

¹⁰⁰ man 'arafanā kāna mu'minan wa man kāna ankaranā kāna kāfiran wa man lam ya'rīfnā wa lam yunkimā kāna dāllan; Usūl al-kāfī, I, 210.

¹⁰¹ Uṣūl al-kāfī, I, 209-12. An influential Sunnī explanation of this verse can be found in al-Ṭabarī's Jāmi' al-bayān fī tafsīr āy al-Qur'ān, V (Cairo: Dār al-Ma'rifa, 1989 [reprint of the 1325 Būlāq edition]), 93-5. The four possible interpretations of "you who are in authority" (ūlī l-amr) mentioned by al-Ṭabarī are 1) the commanders (umarā'), 2) men of religious knowledge ('ilm and fiqh), 3) Companions of Muḥammad, and 4) Abū Bakr and 'Umar. Al-Ṭabarī provides virtually no reports in support of the latter two positions and prefers the first opinion (commanders) to whom he also refers as "Imāms" because "it is known that those to whom God obliges obedience who possess our command are the Imāms and those whom Muslims entrust among the people [to lead];" wa kāna ma'lūma anna lladhīna amara bi-ṭā'atihim ta'ālā dhikruhu min dhawī amrinā hum al-a'imma wa man wallāhu l-muslimūna dūna ghayrihim min al-nās; ibid., V, 95.

¹⁰² Usūl al-kāfī, I, 211-2.

¹⁰³ An-Nawawi's Forty Hadith, 34–5. This hadīth is found in the Ṣaḥīḥs of al-Bukhārī and Muslim. The Arabic is buniya l-islāmu 'alā l-khamsin: shahādati an lā ilāha illā llāhu wa anna Muḥammadan rasūlu llāhi wa iqāmi l-ṣalāti wa ītā'i l-zakāti wa ḥajji l-bayti wa ṣawmi Ramaḍān.

walāyati wa lam yunāda bi-shay'in kamā nūdiya bi-l-walāya; Uṣūl al-kāfī, II, 42-5. These sentences occur in five reports. Momen observes that the term walāya (or wilāya) is "one of the most difficult Islamic terms to translate" and he interprets it to mean

Despite the fact that Ja'far al-Sādiq is reported as whittling the pillars down to three or four in various reports, 105 the message between these two Imams is clear: a prerequisite of faith is the recognition of the Imams. 106

Rather than relying upon forged prophetic hadīth, al-Kulyanī employs reports on the authority of Muhammad al-Bāqir and his son Ja'far to offer a radical interpretation of the Qur'an itself in support of the supernatural essence of the Imams. We learn that the Imāms are the witnesses of God against His creatures, 107 guides, 108 representatives (khulafa'), 109 the light of God, 110 signposts ('alāmāt), 111 signs (āyāt), 112 and the experts in knowledge (rāsikhūn fī l-'ilm). 113 Their knowledge includes all of the revealed books,114 all of the disciplines that come from angels, prophets, and messengers,115 their respective

that the Imam is "concerned primarily with the inner or esoteric aspects of religion ... at one and the same time, master and friend in the journey of the spirit;" An Introduction to Shī'ī Islam, 157. In reports such as this one, walāya refers to the Imamate of 'Alī and his designated successors.

105 The three pillars are prayer, alms, and walāya, while the reports with four reinstate the shahāda, and include alms, "that which Muhammad received from

God," and the walāya; Uṣūl al-kāfī, II, 42-5.

107 Qur'an 2:143; Usūl al-kāfī, I, 212-4. Note that many of these interpretations are cited in Momen, An Introduction to Shī'ī Islam, 151-3.

108 Our'ān 13:7; *Úṣūl al-kāfī*, I, 214-5. 109 Our'ān 24:55; *Usūl al-kāfī*, I, 216-7. times of death, 116 and all that has and will happen. 117 Finally, they are the sole people who have perfect knowledge of the Our an, 118 and Ia'far indicates in one report that it is the Book of God that gives them knowledge of "all in the skies, earth, Heaven, Hell, past and future."119

Al-Kulaynī's strategy for dismissing the sahāba and the entire hadīth enterprise is unwritten yet obvious: with super-human Imams who know everything and to whom obedience is an obligatory pillar of Islam, who has time for the unsophisticated Companions of the Prophet? Even the extraordinary muhaddath Salman al-Farisi is but a grain of sand next to the ocean of the Imams. Al-Kulayni does not even have to resort to the historiographical trick played al-Kashshī, namely to state that ridda refers to the apostasy of all but three saḥāba instead of the Bedouin tribes who fought Abū Bakr to avoid taxation. Rather, through a combination of Imāmī locutions, Qur'ānic exegesis, and the customization of a Sunnī hadīth, al-Kulaynī expels all of the sahāba, including those who were loyal to the point of death in support of 'Alī, to the remotest margins of the discourse. Traces of this practice of outright suppression of the sahāba, perfected by al-Kulaynī, can be found even today in Modarressi's Crisis and Consolidation, despite the author's clear hostility towards the mufawidda in general. 120 Al-Kashshī's willingness to praise a dozen sahāba appears now to be a liberal Imāmī Shī'ī view, relative to al-Kulaynī's tour de force, although his radical interpretation of ridda does not appear to have been seriously challenged by the Imāmī Shī'a and remains one of its most caustic differences from the Sunnīs to this day.

¹⁰⁶ This is stated explicitly in a long report of Muhammad Baqir; Usul al-kaft, II, 42-4. Once again, a famous hadith transmitted by Ibn 'Umar is given new meaning with a twist: "whoever dies without knowledge of the Imam dies in a state of pre-Islamic ignorance" (man māta wa lā ya'nfu imāmahu māta mītatan jāhiliyyatan). The presumably original Ibn 'Umar hadīth is found in the Saḥīh of Muslim: man khala'a yadan min tā'atin laqiya llāha yawma l-qiyyāma lā hujjata lahu, wa man māta wa laysa fī 'unuqihi bay'atun, mata mitatatan jahiliyya; Sahih Muslim bi-sharh al-Nawawi, XII, 201. The setting of Ibn 'Umar's hadith indicates that it was first uttered at the time of the Battle of Harra (63/683).

¹¹⁰ Qur'an, 24:35; Usūl al-kāfi, I, 217-20. This section includes an extravagant example of Shi'i exegesis: the light is 'Ali, the niche and the bright light (kawkab durry) are Fātima, the lantern (misbāh) is al-Hasan and the glass is al-Husayn. The expression "neither East nor West" means "neither Jews nor Christians" and "light on light" means Imām after Imām. Furthermore, the darkness in verse 24:40 refers to Abū Bakr and 'Umar (al-awwalu wa sāḥibuhu), the wave to 'Uthmān (al-thālith), and the waves of darkness that follow are Mu'awiya and the trials (fitan) of Banu Umayya.

Our'an 16:16; Usūl al-kāfī, I, 231-2 112 Our'an 10:101; Usūl al-kāfī, I, 232.

¹¹³ Qur'ān 3:7; *Uṣūl al-kāfī*, Ĭ, 238-9.

¹¹⁴ Usūl al-kāfī, I, 253-4. 115 Usūl al-kāfī, I, 281-2.

¹¹⁶ Usūl al-kāfī, I, 285-7.

¹¹⁷ Usūl al-kāfī, I, 287-9.

¹¹⁸ Usül al-kāfi, I. 254-6.

¹¹⁹ Uşūl al-kāfī, I, 287-8. Ja'far's argument is based upon a paraphrase of Sūrat al-Nahl (16):89: "Everything is clarified in [the Book of God]" (fihi tibyānu kulli shay'in).

Modarressi clearly does not want to talk about the first century in his book, thus avoiding the dicey question of the nature of the sahāba. Note how he does not even mention 'Umar by name in connection with the Islamic conquests; Crisis and Consolidation, 3. This avoidance of the sahāba is also found in Momen's An Introduction to Shī'ī Islam.

VI.3.3 The Zaydiyya/Baghdādī Mu'tazila and the saḥāba

The two major issues pertaining to the sahāba that receive a significant amount of attention in the early works of the Zaydiyya and Baghdādī Mu'tazila are the superiority of 'Alī to Abū Bakr and the status of those Companions who opposed him during his counter-caliphate. These two groups adopted similar positions for both issues and the early heresiographer al-Malatī (d. 377/987-8) explitily identified the Baghdādī Mu'tazila as a group of the Zaydiyya. 121 Al-Jāhiz reports an argument for the superiority of 'Alī to Abū Bakr by an anonymous group of Zaydī 'ulamā' that is virtually identical to the one associated with the Baghdādī Mu'tazilī Bishr b. al-Mu'tamir, namely that "merit is determined solely by actions" and 'Alī was the only sahābī who was considered among the best men in the four categories of early conversion, asceticism, religious knowledge (figh), and warfare (al-mashī bi-l-sayf). 122 I shall treat each of these groups independently here and begin with the Zaydiyya since it has successfully outlived the demise of the Baghdādī school of the Mu'tazila. 123

The Zaydī positions of the superiority of 'Alī to Abū Bakr and the acceptance of the authority of the vast majority of the saḥāba has been recorded dutifully by Western scholars for over a century. Both Goldziher's observation that "the Zaydīs are tolerant in their judgment of the Sunnī caliphate of the early Islamic age" and Watt's assertion that "to give an adequate account of the Zaydītes is more difficult than to describe any other of the Islamic sects" remain true to this day. 124 The difficulty to which Watt alludes is the necessity

of the researcher of the Zaydiyya to synthesize a host of 'Alid revolts, sub-sects mentioned in the *firaq* literature, a significant body of material found only in manuscripts, and three arenas of action, namely Kufa, the southern Caspian provinces, and Yemen into a coherent narrative. While Madelung has provided a great service by analyzing the adoption of Mu'tazilī theology by the Zaydī Imāms of the early and classical periods, as well as by editing texts concerning the history of the Caspian Zaydī principalities, the fields of Zaydī hadīth literature and jurisprudence remain largely unexplored by modern scholars. Despite the challenges inherent in the study of the Zaydīyya, a pair of articles have addressed the question of the saḥāba in the Zaydī conscience and a few observations about two classical Zaydī hadīth books will be offered.

Etan Kohlberg identifies four distinct Zaydī attitudes towards the saḥāba in general and different degrees of hostility towards 'Alī's adversaries at the battles of the Camel and Ṣiffīn. ¹²⁵ One group, the partisans of Sulaymān b. Jarīr, employed the argument that the early saḥāba relied upon ijtihād and were thus exempt from error in their decisions to support candidates other than 'Alī. ¹²⁶ The three other Zaydī opinions ranged from withholding judgment, accusing the saḥāba of error (khaṭa') but not sin (fsq), and finally considering the opponents of 'Alī as having "gone astray like a blind camel." Kohlberg reports that the pioneering Zaydī Imām al-Qāsim b. Ibrāhīm (d. 246/860) was relatively harsh towards the saḥāba and that his grandson al-Hādī Yaḥyā b. al-Ḥusayn (d. 298/911) even declared that Abū Bakr and 'Umar deserved the death penalty for passing over 'Alī. ¹²⁸ The majority of the Zaydiyya consider the rebellion of 'Ā'isha, Ṭalḥa, and al-Zubayr to have been an error and sin, while

¹²¹ Abū l-Ḥusayn al-Malaṭī, al-Tanbīh wa l-radd 'alā ahl al-ahwā' wa l-bida', ed. Muḥammad al-Kawtharī (Baghdad, 1968), 34–5. Ibn Abī l-Ḥadīd, about whom we will have more to say shortly, also declares the Baghdādī Mu'tazila to be the "original" Shī'a, namely men who were partisans of 'Alī and opponents of his adversaries; see his book Sharh nahj al-balāgha, ed. Ḥusayn al-A'lamī, XX (Beirut, 1995), 405

¹²² wajadnā l-fadla fī l-fili dūna ghayrih; al-Jāḥiz, Rasā'il al-Jāḥiz, ed. 'Abd al-Salām Muḥammad Hārūn, IV (Cairo: Maktabat al-Khānjī, 1979), 311-4. 'Alī's competitors for earliest conversion are Abū Bakr, Zayd b. Ḥāritha, and Khabbāb; for asceticsm: Abū l-Dardā', Mu'ādh b. Jabal, Abū Dharr, 'Ammār, Bilāl, and 'Uthmān b. Maz'ūn; for fiqh: 'Umar, Ibn Mas'ūd, Zayd b. Thābit, and Ubayy b. Ka'b; and for warfare: al-Zubayr, Ibn 'Afrā', Muḥammad b. Maslama, Ṭalḥa, and al-Barā' b. Mālik.

¹²³ It is not clear exactly when the Baghdādī school of Mu'tazila vanished; one of the final famous Baghdādī Mu'tazila in the classical period was the recently mentioned Ibn Abī l-Ḥadīd (d. 656/1258).

¹²⁴ Ignaz Goldziher, Introduction to Islamic Theology and Law, translated by Andras

and Ruth Hamori (Princeton, 1981 [1910]) 218; Watt, The Formative Period of Islamic Thought, 162.

Etan Kohlberg, "Some Zaydī Views of the Companions of the Prophet," BSOAS, 39/1 (1976), 91-8.

^{126 &}quot;Some Zaydī Views of the Companions of the Prophet," 92.

[&]quot;Some Zaydī Views of the Companions of the Prophet," 92-3. Note that these same three attitudes are mirrored in the Zaydī reactions to Abū Bakr, 'Umar, and 'Uthmān's rejection of 'Alī's superiority (p. 94).

^{128 &}quot;Some Zaydī Views of the Companions of the Prophet," 94. Binyamin Abrahamov remarks that there is not any evidence of al-Qāsim's illegitimation of Abū Bakr and 'Umar in his writings on the Imāmate, although his argument is one drawn largely from silence; "al-Kāsim ibn Ibrāhīm's theory of the Imamate," *Arabica*, XXXIV (1987), 80–105.

simultaneously holding the belief that these three individuals died in a state of repentance, while the minority holds that they died in error. 129 Kohlberg remarks that "Mu'āwiya is painted in very dark colors" as either a grave sinner or disbeliever, and the ninth/fifteenth century Imām Ibn al-Murtadā states that only the Hashwiyya (Sunnīs) consider his repentance sincere. 130 Finally, the most sinister sahābī in the Zaydī works examined by Kohlberg is al-Mughīra b. Shu'ba, who is blamed for arranging the usurpation of 'Alī's authority from the very beginning of post-prophetic Islamic civilization. ¹³¹ Despite the fact that the vast majority of Zaydī texts that describe the sahāba were composed long after the third/ninth century, there is a clear continuity between the positions found in the early, non-Zaydī heresiographical works, and the later Zaydī books that indicates a genuine reluctance to calumniate any sahābī among the Muhājirūn and Anṣār even if they did not support their hero 'Alī in his wars. 132

Perhaps the most interesting dimension of the Zaydī attitudes towards the sahāba can be found in the incorporation of a significant amount of Sunnī hadīth in their hadīth literature. Madelung has observed that one of the earliest Zaydī hadīth books, the Amālī Ahmad b. Isā compiled by Abū Ja'far Muhammad b. Mansūr al-Murādī al-Kūfī (d. second half of third/ninth century) includes a large number of reports from descendents of 'Alī as well as material from Ibn 'Abbās and 'Ā'isha. 133 The most significant Zaydī hadīth book, accord-

131 "Some Zaydī Views of the Companions of the Prophet," 95. Kohlberg says

that the extreme vilification of al-Mughīra is unique to the Zaydiyya.

ing to Ibrāhīm b. Muhammad al-Wazīr (d. 914/1508), is the six volume al-Jāmi' al-kāfī by Abū 'Abdullāh Muhammad b. 'Alī al-'Alawī al-Kūfī (d. 445/1053-4) and includes "hadīth, āthār, locutions of the sahāba and tābi'ūn, and the opinions of the Prophet's family ('itra)."134 The Caspian Imāms al-Mu'avvid bi-llāh Ahmad b. al-Husayn b. Hārūn (d. 421/1030), Abū Tālib Yahyā b. al-Husayn b. Hārūn (d. 424/1033), and al-Murshid bi-llāh Yahyā b. al-Husayn al-Shajara (d. 499/1105-6) all composed hadīth books called amālī ("dictations") that were arranged thematically by Yemeni scholars of the following centuries. 135 A cursory examination of Abū Tālib's Amālā reveals that the Imam heard many hadith from the master Sunni critic Ibn 'Adī and that a significant percentage of the reports are on the authority of Ibn 'Umar, something that comes as a surprise given Ibn 'Umar's initial reluctance to give 'Alī the bay'a. Abū Hurayra is conspicuously absent from these reports, but other prolific sahāba such as Anas b. Mālik, Abū Sa'īd al-Khudrī, and Jābir b. 'Abdullāh are all present, as well as, of course, 'Alī. Imām Abū Ṭālib's hadīth book is, in short, an eloquent testimony to Kohlberg's observation that the general acceptance of the probity of most sahāba "enabled

134 Ibrāhīm b. Muḥammad al-Wazīr, al-Falak al-daurwār fi sulūm al-hadīth wa l-figh wa l-āthār, ed. Muḥammad 'Azzān (San'ā' and Sa'da, 1994), 59-60. Abū 'Abdullāh al-'Alawī receives a short notice in Siyar a'lām al-nubalā' (XVII, 636-7) in which al-Dhahabī praises him as Imām, thiqa, hāfiz and 'Musnid al-Kufa'. He also remarks that the master hadīth scholar al-Sūrī made and abridgement of his work and praised him highly. Abū 'Abdullāh's al-Jāmi' al-kāfī survives in manuscript; see Brockelmann, Geschichte der arabischen Litteratur, Supplement, I (Leiden, 1937-42), 318, 698.

[&]quot;Some Zaydī Views of the Companions of the Prophet," 95-6. This is also reported by Ibn al-Murtada in the Mugaddima of Kitab al-bahr al-zakhkhar (San'a': Dār al-Ḥikma al-Yamāniyya, 1988), 95. Ibn al-Murtadā also flatly rejects in this passage Sulavmān b. Jarīr's opinion that any revolt against an Imām constitutes

^{130 &}quot;Some Zaydī Views of the Companions of the Prophet," 96; Ibn al-Murtaḍā, Muqaddima, 95.

The willingness to attack Mu'āwiya and al-Mughīra may have been due to the classic Zaydī definition of a sahābī as someone who has "spent a considerable amount of time with the Prophet and followed his laws" (al-sahābī man tālat majālisaluhu iyyāhu muttabi'an li-shar'ih), Ibn al-Murtadā, al-Muqaddima, 180. This is a significant departure from the Sunnī definition that we encountered in Ibn al-Salāh's Mugaddima that anyone who meets the Prophet is a saḥābī, and Ibn al-Murtadā explicitly argues that "meeting is not companionship linguistically, legally, or by custom" (al-lāqī laysa bi-ṣāḥibin lughatan wa lā shar'an wa lā 'urfan'; ibid., 180. Thus, it is not clear whether either al-Mughīra or Mu'āwiya would qualify as sahāba in the eyes of the Zaydiyya in the first place.

¹³³ Madelung, Der Imam al-Qāsim ibn Ibrāhīm (Berlin: Walter de Gruyter, 1965),

^{82-3.} Madelung mentions that there are also reports from prominent Iraqis such as Ibn Abī Laylā, Abū Ḥanīfa, and Sufyān al-Thawrī. Furthermore, he remarks that this book contains reports solely of a legal nature and that none of them discuss theological topics. The Amālī Ahmad b. Isā has been published twice, according to the Yemeni scholar Muhammad 'Azzān, but does not appear to be available in the United States according to World Cat. A manuscript copy is preserved in the Ambrosiana Library in Milan (H 135); see GAS I, 560-1.

¹³⁵ Two of these books have been published without any editorial niceties: Taysir al-matālib fī amālī al-imām Abī Tālib (Beirut, 1975) was arranged into sixty-two chapters by the Yemeni al-Qadī Ja'far b. Ahmad b. 'Abd al-Salam (d. 573/1177-8) who studied in Kufa and Mecca and is reported to have brought al-Zamakhshari's famous Qur'an commentary al-Kashshāf to Yemen as well; and Kūtāb al-amālī alshahīra bi-l-amālī al-khamīsiyya (Beirut, no date) that was arranged into forty chapters by al-Qādī Muḥammad b. Aḥmad al-Qurashī (d. 623/1226) who settled in Huth (midway between San'ā' and Sa'da). The first hadith of this latter book is, perhaps not coincidentally, the same famous hadith on the authority of Umar that opens al-Bukhārī's Saḥīḥ: "Truly actions are done by intentions and to every man belongs what he has intended...."

the Zaydiyya to accept Sunnī traditions without compromising the special status enjoyed by the ahl al-bayt." 136

While the three major Zaydī Imāms of the third/ninth century whose works have been published have very little to say about the sahāba,137 two early Baghdādī Mu'tazila help fill this lacuna. Abū Ja'far al-Iskāfī (d. 240/854-5) can be found in the twelfth tabaqa in the Mu'tazilī ghetto of Siyar a'lām al-nubalā' mentioned in the previous chapter and we are fortunate to have both his refutations to al-Jāhiz's book al-'Uthmāniyya as well as his son Abū Muhammad Ja'far's book al-Mi'yār wa l-muwāzana published. 138 These two works, which deal almost exclusively with the argument for the superiority of 'Alī over Abū Bakr, will be supplemented by a discussion of twenty sahāba who turned away from (munharif) 'Alī according to the opinions of scholars of the Baghdādī Mu'tazila preserved in Ibn Abī l-Ḥadīd's Sharh nah al-balāgha. Although the Baghdādī Mu'tazila neither composed any major hadith books nor survived as an independent theological school, their opinions are significant for our study because they were most likely adopted by the Zaydiyya (along with their theology) and may have influenced the fifth/eleventh century Zaydī hadīth books that were just mentioned.

Abū Ja'far al-Iskāfī's refutations of selected arguments put forth by al-Jāḥiz in al-ʿUthmāniyya are aimed not at denying the merits of the ṣaḥāba ini general, but at denying that any of the ṣaḥāba were superior to 'Alī.¹³9 Five topics occupy al-Iskāfī's attention. The first is the question of precedence in conversion to Islam, and Abū Ja'far amasses thirty-one reports, most of which have "Sunnī" isnāds, as well as some verses of poetry that argue in favor of 'Alī.¹⁴0 A corol-

136 "Some Zaydī Views of the Companions of the Prophet," 98.

These three Zaydī Imāms are al-Qāsim b. Ibrāhīm, al-Ḥasan b. Zayd (d. 270/

884), and al-Hadī Yahvā b. al-Ḥusayn.

innā lā nunkiru fadla l-ṣaḥāba wa sawābiqahum . . . wa lākinnanā nunkiru tafdīla aḥadi l-ṣaḥāba ʿalā ʿAlī ibn Abī Ṭālib; al-Jāḥiz, al-ʿUthmāniyya (Cairo, 1955), 318.

lary to this argument is the assertion that 'Alī was not a mere child following the Prophet's command but rather possessed a rational faculty and made a conscious choice to enter Islam. Abū Ja'far mentions five opinions concerning the age of 'Alī at his conversion, ranging from nine to fifteen and argues that the minimal age for a boy to achieve rationality is ten, which, coincidently, was the age of Ibn 'Abbas when the Prophet died. 141 The second topic is the argument that 'Alī's emigration was more dangerous than that of Abū Bakr, and a third one is 'Alī's well-known military superiority to him. 142 Abū Ja'far seeks to debunk the "myth" that Abū Bakr was a great proselytizer by remarking that he was unsuccessful at converting his son 'Abd al-Rahmān, his father, his mother, his wife Namla, or his pupil Jubayr b. Mut'im and that Mus'ab b. 'Umayr, Sa'd b. Mu'adh, and Burayda b. Habīb were far superior to him in this respect. 143 The final "myth" that al-Iskāfī seeks to shatter is that of Abū Bakr's generosity, since he argues that it was actually the Prophet who freed Bilāl and 'Āmir b. Fuhayra, and that Abū Bakr's support of his family was nothing meritorious since it was obligatory.

Abū Ja'far's son, Ibn al-Iskāfī, provides even lengthier arguments for the superiority of 'Alī to Abū Bakr than his father and exposes contradictions within the opinions of the Muslim masses, the Sunnīs ('āmma). Ibn al-Iskāfī questions why the only proof offered for Abū Bakr's superiority is a single widespread report on the authority of Ibn 'Umar, while the reports from Muḥammad b. Abī Bakr, Salmān al-Fārisī, and 'Ammār are ignored. 144 He also observes that several

¹⁴² Al-Uthmāniyya, 310-11; 327-39. 'Alī's primary feats are his inclusion among the five who defended the Prophet at Uhud and his duel with 'Amr b. 'Abdullāh

b. 'Abd Wudd at al-Khandag.

¹³⁸ Al-Iskāfī's remarks were extracted from Sharh nahj al-balāgha and arranged carefully by Muḥammad 'Abd al-Salām Hārūn at the end of his edition of Jāḥiz's al-'Uthmāniyya. While the editor of al-Mī'yār wa l-muwāzana claims that it is a work of al-Iskāfī, Modarressi corrects the attribution to his son Ja'far. A discussion of several refutations of al-Jāḥiz's al-'Uthmāniyya can be found in Asma Afsaruddin, Excellence and Precedence: Medieval Islamic Discourse on Legitimate Leadership (Leiden: Brill, 2002), 23-5.

¹⁴⁰ Al-Ulhmāniyya, 287–93. The poetry seems quite tendentious; did Abū Sufyān really say "I never thought that the leadership (amr) would leave Banū Hāshim or Abū Hasan ('Alī)/Was he not the first to pray in the direction of their qibla and

the most knowledgeable of the laws and practices?" mā kuntu ahsabu an al-amra munṣar-ifun 'an Hāshimin thumma minhā 'an Abī Hasani/a-laysa awwala man ṣallā li-qiblatihim wa a'lama l-nāsi bi-l-ahkāmi wa l-sunani? (ibid., 294).

¹⁴¹ Al-'Uthmāniyya, 295-9. The five opinions are 15 (al-'Awzā'ī, Qatāda), 14 (Ḥudhayfa b. al-Yamān), 11 (Ja'far al-Ṣādiq and his father), 10 (Ibn Isḥāq), and 9 (al-Sha'bī). Note that al-Wāqidī puts the age of Ibn 'Abbās at the death of the Prophet at 13, but Sa'īd b. Manṣūr and Abū l-Walīd al-Ṭayālisī quote sources who put it at ten years old; TK 2001, VI, 321.

¹¹³ Al-'Ulhmāniyya, 313-6. Abū Ja'far even questions the authenticity of the reports that Abū Bakr converted Sa'd b. Abī Waqqāṣ, al-Zubayr, and 'Abd al-Raḥmān b. 'Awf, who were not his friends prior to Islam, in light of his failure to convert his friend 'Umar b. al-Khaṭṭāb.

¹⁴⁴ Ibn al-Iskāfī, al-Mi'yār wa l-muwāzana (Beirut, 1981), 20. Ibn 'Umar's report that "we would favor Abū Bakr, then 'Umar, then 'Uthmān at the time of the Prophet," is found in the Ṣaḥtḥ of al-Bukhārī but not that of Muslim; it is also the

prominent sahāba, such as 'Ā'isha, Talha, al-Zubayr, Ibn 'Umar, Muhammad b. Maslama, and Usāma b. Zayd, did not give 'Alī the bay'a, and were opposed to 'Uthman's practices. 145 Another criticism raised by opponents of 'Alī, namely his willingness to shed Muslim blood, in contrast to 'Uthman's reluctance to do so in order to save his own life, is cleverly refuted by the argument that Abū Bakr shed Muslim blood in the ridda, and so if 'Uthmān's position was correct, then Abū Bakr's must be wrong. 146 Finally, Ibn al-Iskāfi's greatest coup in defense of his position that Abū Bakr was not the greatest saḥābī is Abū Bakr's own locution "O you! I am not the best among you" at the Saqīfa, an explicit text that Sunnī scholars have had to interpret creatively for centuries.147

A particularly insightful dimension of Ibn al-Iskāfī's polemic is directed against those who deny the legitimacy of 'Alī's caliphate due to the abstention of the group of sahāba whom I have mentioned earlier in this chapter. How is it, he asks, that Abū Bakr's bay'a was considered complete by just the allegiance of 'Umar and Abū 'Ubayda when Sa'd b. 'Ubāda had already received his own bay'a from a group of the Anṣār? Likewise, how could 'Umar's bay'a be superior to 'Alī's when the former was appointed by Abū Bakr and 'Alī was elected by a shūrā? And, finally, how could 'Uthmān's shūrā be superior to 'Alī's given that the former consisted of only six Muhājirūn whereas the latter's consisted of numerous Muhājirūn and Anṣār? While these arguments are far from flawless, 148 they do

primary report used by Ibn Hanbal to justify this sequence, according to Abū Bakr al-Khallāl (d. 311/923) in Kītāb al-sunna, I (Riyadh: Dār al-Rāya, 1994), 371, 401-2. In fact, al-Khallal devotes an entire chapter to this hadith; ibid., I, 396-410.

146 Al-Mi'yār wa l-muwāzana, 33-4. Ibn al-Iskāfī also raises the point, noted by Madelung, that most of the sahāba did not feel that the refusal to pay zakāt constituted apostasy pace Abū Bakr; ibid., 35.

wa laytakum wa lastu bi-khayrikum; al-Mi'yār wa l-muwāzana, 39-40. Ibn al-Iskāfī refutes three apologic interpretations of this statement present in his own day: 1) Abū Bakr was referring to his genealogy (nasab); 2) he was referring to his religion $(d\bar{n})$; 3) he was being modest $(taw\bar{a}du^c)$.

148 For example, he does not address the numerous reports that have al-Ashtar

indicate the "popular" nature of the selection of 'Alī that took place without careful manipulation by the Quraysh and Muhājirūn.

The greater part of al-Mi'yār wa l-muwāzana is devoted to extolling the virtues of 'Alī, largely without comparison to other sahāba. Ibn al-Iskāfī identifies five virtues, four of which he supports with Qur'anic proof texts, all of which were found in his hero 'Alī. These virtues are knowledge of God and His religion, early conversion (taqdīm) to Islam, warfare (jihād) against enemies, patience in adversity, and pious asceticism. 149 Ibn al-Iskāfī demonstrates 'Alī's excellence in all of these categories on the basis of a large number of speeches attributed to him, many of which the editor of al-Mi'yār wa l-muwāzana was able to identify in Sharīf al-Rādī's fifth/eleventh century compilation Nahj al-balāgha. While it is impossible to gauge the impact of Abū Ja'far al-Iskāfī and his son upon their third/ninth century contemporaries, the efforts of these two men to strike a balance between those who rejected the legitimacy of 'Alī and those who practically deified him was a uniquely moderate position that was overwhelmed by the Sunnī insistence upon 'Alī's status as the fourth greatest $sah\bar{a}b\bar{t}$ and survived only among the Zaydiyya in the long run. 150

Ibn Abī l-Ḥadīd's collation of twenty saḥāba who opposed 'Alī from lost texts of earlier Baghdādī Mu'tazila, including al-Iskāfī, is significant for its identification of men whose probity was considered questionable with regard to religious issues. Three of these men-Abū Hurayra, 'Amr b. al-'Āṣ, and al-Mughīra b. Shu'ba—are accused explicitly of forging anti-'Alī hadīth for Mu'āwiya, while Samura b. Jundab is reported to have received a large bribe from Mu'āwiya to interpret the following Our'anic verses as a reference to 'Alī:

And of mankind there is he whose conversation on the life of this world pleases you (Muḥammad), and he calls Allāh to witness as to what is in his heart; yet he is the most rigid of opponents. And when

Al-Mi'yār wa l-muwāzana, 63-5. These virtues are supported by the following Qur'anic verses: 39:9, 13:19, 35:28 (knowledge); 57:10 (precedence in Islam); 4:95, 9:111 (warfare); 2:177, 3:200 (patience); none (asceticism).

¹⁴⁵ Al-Mi'yār wa l-muwāzana, 21-2. Just to be safe, Ibn al-Iskāfī finds a more prominent 'Alī- supporter for each of these anti-'Alī ṣaḥāba: Umm Salama opposed 'Ā'isha's trip to Basra; Ibn 'Abbās was superior to Ibn 'Umar; Talha and al-Zubayr actually gave the bay'a to 'Alī and then violated it; Salmān was superior to Muhammad b. Maslama; and 'Ammar was greater than Usama. Ibn al-Iskafi wisely chose to ignore Sa'd b. Abī Waqqāş's failure to pledge allegiance to 'Alī, probably because there were not any other members of the shūrā that selected 'Uthmān who supported 'Alī, except, of course, 'Alī himself.

and his sword as the primary forces behind 'Alī's bay'a; likewise, his argument that Abū Bakr's bay'a was conducted in haste to prevent greater civil strife could also apply to 'Alī's election.

¹⁵⁰ Note Ibn al-Iskāfī's identification of the parallel between Jesus and 'Alī in their respective religious traditions: while the Christians and Rafida deified their respective leaders, the Jews and Nussāb (anti-'Alī proto-Sunnīs) rejected them; al-Mi'yār wa l-muwāzana, 31-2.

he turns away (from you) his effort in the land is to make mischief therein and to destroy the crops and the cattle; and Allāh loves not mischief.¹⁵¹

Abū Hurayra fares particularly badly in this section, as no less than seven authorities ranging from 'Umar to Abū Ḥanīfa to Ibn Qutayba, are brought forth who question his reliability as a narrator of hadīth. Seven ṣaḥāba are also reported as being cursed by 'Alī on a regular basis in his qunūt, and Ibn Abī l-Ḥadīd mentions the suffering endured by Anas b. Mālik and Zayd b. Arqam after their refusal to testify to the veracity of the Prophet's speech at Ghadīr Khumm. The remaining nine anti-'Alī ṣaḥāba identified by Ibn Abī l-Ḥadīd share the additional common characteristics of having converted to Islam after the Battle of Badr and lived well into the early decades of the Umayyad dynasty. The Particularly striking is the absence from this list of the prominent Muhājirūn who opposed 'Alī, such as Ṭalḥa, al-Zubayr, or Sa'd b. Abī Waqqāṣ, as well as 'Ā'isha, something which indicates that the Baghdādī Mu'tazila accepted their repentance (or martyrdom) after the Battle of the Camel as sincere.

The attitude of the Zaydiyya and Baghdādī Mu'tazila towards the ṣaḥāba is of primary interest for this project because it was a mod-

erate path *not* taken by either the Sunnīs or the Imāmī Shīʿa. The argument that 'Alī was the greatest human after the Prophet Muḥammad on the basis of his personal qualities of religious erudition, military prowess, early embrace of Islam, and piety was unpersuasive to the majority of the Muslim Community, who insisted that only the best man could have been the first successor to the Prophet, and to the Imāmī Shīʿa whose elevation of 'Alī rested solely upon his supposedly clear designation by Muḥammad.¹56 Their efforts to affirm the probity of all but twenty or so saḥāba, most of whom were late converts to Islam and actively engaged in acts of defamation against 'Alī, was seen as a threat to the historiographical visions of both parties as well. It appears to be just another accident of history that the only place where the moderate position vis-à-vis the saḥāba advocated by the Zaydiyya and the Baghdādī Muʿtazila established deep roots was the mountainous region of northern Yemen.

VI.4 Sunnī solutions

VI.4.1 The virtues of the sahāba

A sensible place to discover the Sunnī harmonization between the warring saḥāba is in the ḥadīth collections of the third/ninth century. The earliest extant hadīth compilation to have a chapter (kitāb) devoted to the virtues (faḍā'il) of specific individuals is the Muṣannaf of Ibn Abī Shayba.¹⁵⁷ Two of Ibn Abī Shayba's pupils, al-Bukhārī and Muslim, followed his lead and included chapters on the virtues of the ṣaḥāba in their Ṣaḥīhs. A final third/ninth century source that I shall use merely to identify the most popular saḥāba among the early

¹⁵¹ Ibn Abī l-Ḥadīd, *Sharḥ nalij al-balāgḥa*, IV, 283 and 289. The accuser in both cases is none other than Abū Jaʿfar al-Iskāfī; the Qurʾānic verses in question are 2:204-5.

¹⁵² Sharh nahj al-balāgha, IV, 285-7.

b. Maslama, Mu'āwiya, al-Mughīra b. Shu'ba, and al-Walīd b. 'Uqba; Sharh nahj al-balāgha, IV, 294. The qunūt is non-obligatory supplication said aloud during the second rak'a of the daybreak prayer; the Prophet is reported to have cursed his enemies in his qunūt for a month and then abandoned this practice; see Saḥīḥ Muslim bi-sharh al-Nawawī, V, 150-4. Al-Ṭahāwī reports that the Hanafīs, Ibn Shubrama, and Sufyān al-Thawrī do not perform qunūt in the daybreak prayer, Ibn Abī Laylā, Mālik and al-Hasan al-Ḥayp perform it prior to the nukū', and al-Shāfī'ī performs it after the nukū', al-Ṭaḥāwī/al-Jaṣṣāṣ, Mukhtaṣar ikhtilāf al-'ulamā', I (Beirut: Dār al-Bashā'ir Islāmiyya, 1996), 215. The Imāmī Shī'ī scholar al-Muḥaqqiq al-Ḥillī (d. 676/1277) states that it is praiseworthy (masnūn) to perform the qunūt prior to the second rukū' during the second rak'a of every prayer; see his Sharā'i' al-Islām fī masā'il al-ḥalāl wa l-harām, I (Tehran: Intishārāt Istiqlāl, 1373-1415), 71.

¹⁵⁴ Sharh nahj al-balāgha, IV, 291. Recall that the report I cited above in al-Kashshī's book substituted al-Barā' b. 'Āzib for Zayd b. Argam.

¹⁵⁵ These men are 'Abdullāh b. al-Zubayr (d. 73/692), Abū Mas'ūd al-Anṣārī (d. before 60/680), 'Aqīl b. Abī Tālib (d. before 60), al-Ash'ath b. Qays (d. before 41/661), Ḥanṣala b. al-Rabī' al-Kātib, 'Imrān b. Ḥuṣayn (d. 52/672), Jarīr b. 'Abdullah al-Bajalī, al-Nu'mān b. Bashīr, and Zayd b. Thābit.

¹⁵⁶ Many, if not most, Zaydī scholars believed that 'Alī was designated as well, but they did not consider the elections of Abū Bakr, 'Umar, or 'Uthmān as sinful. 157 The Muwaṭṭa' of Mālik contains a sub-chapter on the "virtues of Medina" and the Muṣannaf of 'Abd al-Razzāq al-Ṣan'ānī contains the following sub-chapters of relevance to the merits of the ṣaḥāba in the kitāb al-jāmī. fadā'il Quraysh, faḍā'il al-Anṣār, zuhd al-ṣaḥāba (mentions 'Umar, Abū Dharr, Ibn 'Umar, Salmān, Hudhayfa, dhikr 'Alī b. Abī Ṭālib, azwāj al-nabī, maqtal 'Uthmān, dhikr al-Ḥasan b. 'Alī, see 'Abd al-Razzāq, al-Muṣannaf, XI (Beirut, 1972), 54–65, 310–4, 317–8, 429–33, 444–50, 452–3. The twenty-seventh book of the Muṣannaf of Ibn Abī Shayba is devoted to the virtues of prophets, ṣaḥāba, cities, tribes, and four masājid; al-Kītāb al-muṣannaf fī l-aḥādīth wa l-āthār, VI, 307–420.

Sunnīs is the *Kītāb faḍā'il al-ṣaḥāba* that is attributed to Ibn Ḥanbal but is more accurately the work of his son 'Abdullāh.¹⁵⁸ The following sixty-three ṣaḥāba have been arranged according to the frequency with which they receive sub-chapters (abwāb) in these four books:

I. Ṣaḥāba receiving sub-chapters in all four sources (alphabetically arranged):

1)	Abū Bakr al-Ṣiddīq	ll) Ja'far b. Abī Ṭālib
2)	Abū 'Ubayda b. al-Jarrāḥ	12) Jarīr b. 'Abdullāh
3)	'Ā'isha bint Abī Bakr	13) Khadīja bint Khuwaylid
4)	'Alī b. Abī Ṭālib	14) Sa'd b. Abī Waqqāṣ
5)	Fātima bint Rasūl Allāh	15) Sa'd b. Mu'ādh
6)	al-Ḥasan b. 'Alī	16) Țalḥa b. 'Ubayd Allāh
7)	al-Ḥusayn b. 'Alī	17) 'Umar b. al-Khaṭṭāb
Q١	The Abbas	10) Ilaāma b. Zaud

8) Ibn 'Abbās 18) Usāma b. Zayd 9) Ibn Mas'ūd 19) 'Uthmān b. 'Affān 10) Ibn 'Umar 20) al-Zubayr b. 'Awwām

II. Ṣaḥāba receiving sub-chapters in three sources

1)	al-'Abbas b. 'Abd	(absent	from	Muslim)
	al-Muṭṭalib			
2)	'Ammār b. Yāsir	(absent	from	Muslim)
		(absent	from	Ibn Ḥanbal)
4)	Khālid b. al-Walīd	(absent	from	Muslim)
5)	Şuhayb b. Sinān	(absent	from	Bukhārī)
6)	Ubayy b. Ka'b	(absent	from	Ibn Ḥanbal)
7)	Zayd b. Ḥāritha	(absent	from	Ibn Ḥanbal)

III. Saḥāba receiving sub-chapters in two sources¹⁵⁹

parava receiving our emapters r	ii tiio boar
l) 'Abd al-Raḥmān b. 'Awf	(IḤ, IAS)
2) 'Abdullāh b. Salām	(B, M)
3) Abū Dharr al-Ghifārī	(M, IAS)
4) Ab ū Mūsā l-Ash'arī	(M, IAS)
5) Abū Ṭalḥa Zayd b. Sahl	(B, M)
6) Muʻādh b. Jabal	(B, IAS)

¹⁵⁸ Since this book does not appear to have been terribly influential and was published on the basis of a single surviving manuscript, I shall be making few references to it in the following paragraphs. Furthermore, there appear to be large additions to this book by 'Abdullāh's pupil Abū Bakr al-Qatī'ī.

159 Abbreviations: B: Şaḥīḥ al-Bukhārī; M: Şaḥīḥ Muslim; IAS: al-Muṣannaf of Ibn Abī Shayba; IH: Fadā'il al-sahāba of Ibn Hanbal.

7) Muʻāwiya b. Abī Sufy	(B, IḤ)			
8) Salmān al-Fārisī	(M, IAS)			
IV. Ṣaḥāba receiving subchapte	V. Sahāba receiving subchapters in o			
l) 'Abbād b. Bishr	(B)	15) Ḥassān b. Thābit	(M)	
2) 'Abdullāh b. 'Amr b.	(\mathbf{M})	16) Ḥudhayfa b.	(B)	
Ḥarām		al-Yamān	()	
3) 'Abdullāh b. Ja'far	(\mathbf{M})	17) Ibn Rawāḥa,	(IAS)	
		'Abdullāh	()	
4) Abū 'Āmir al-Ash'arī	(\mathbf{M})	18) Julaybīb	(\mathbf{M})	
5) Abū Dujāna, Simāk	(\mathbf{M})		$(B)^{160}$	
6) Abū Hurayra	(\mathbf{M})	20) Sa'd b. 'Ubāda	(B)	
7) Abū l-Dardā'	(IAS)		(B)	
	. ,	Abī Ḥudhayfa	(2)	
8) Abū Mas'ūd al-Anṣārī	(IAS)	00) (77	(IAS)	
		al-Ṣāmit	()	
9) Abū Sufyān b. Ḥarb	(\mathbf{M})	23) Umm Ayman	(\mathbf{M})	
10) 'Amr b. al-'Āṣ	(IH)	24) Umm Salama	(\mathbf{M})	
ll) Anas b. Mālik	(\mathbf{M})	25) Umm Sulaym	(\mathbf{M})	
12) Asmā' bint 'Unays	(\mathbf{M})	26) Usayd b. Ḥudayr	(B)	
13) Hamza b. 'Abd	(IAS)	27) Zayd b. Thābit	(B)	
al-Muṭṭalib	. ,	, ,	(2)	
l4) Ḥāritha b. al-Nuʻmān	(IH)	28) Zaynab bint	(M)	
	,	Khuzayma	()	
		,		

Several of the primary actors in the early civil strife who were mentioned at the beginning of this chapter receive special attention in at least one of the four sources. Sa'd b. 'Ubāda, the abused Khazrajī leader who never gave the bay'a to Abū Bakr nor 'Umar, enjoys a subchapter in al-Bukhārī's Ṣaḥāḥ, while the anti-'Alī companions Zayd b. Thābit, Ḥassān b. Thābit, and 'Amr b. al-'Aṣ all receive recognition in only one of the four sources. There are sub-chapters for the anti-'Alī ṣaḥāba 'Abdullāh b. Salām and Mu'āwiya, the neutral Abū Mūsā l-Ash'arī, and the pro-'Alī Salmān al-Fārisī and Abū Dharr in half of the sources, and the martyred 'Ammār b. Yāsir in three of them. It is striking that the vast majority of ṣaḥāba affiliated with the immediate internecine conflict of the post-prophetic Muslim Community, however, do not receive special recognition in these four

¹⁵⁰ This is the only case among these saḥāba in which a sub-chapter was made by al-Bukhārī but he did not actually include any hadīth in it; Fath al-bārī, VII, 463.

hadīth books, and this suggests that the collection of the fadā'il hadīth played a limited role in the Sunnī affirmation of the collective probity of the sahāba.

The twenty sahāba who receive sub-chapters in the two Sahāhs, Ibn Abī Shayba's Musannaf, and Kītāb fadā'il al-sahāba are a most interesting lot for this study. Six of them are close blood relatives of the Prophet Muhammad—his daughter Fātima,161 grandsons al-Hasan and al-Husayn, 162 and first cousins 'Alī and Ja'far b. Abī Tālib, 163 and 'Abdullāh b. 'Abbās164-a finding that supports Madelung's argument of the primacy of the Prophet's family among early Muslims. 165

162 Al-Hasan and al-Husayn are invariably grouped together in one sub-chapter and both al-Bukhari and Muslim stress the Prophet's love for his grandchildren in several hadīth on the authority of Abū Hurayra, al-Barā' b. 'Āzib, and Usāma b. Zavd, Falh al-bārī, VII, 464; Sahīh Muslim bi-sharh al-Nawawī, XV, 156-7. Al-Bukhārī also includes reports from Abū Bakr and Anas that al-Hasan most resembled the Prophet, as well as another report from Anas that al-Husayn most resembled his grandfather; Fath al-bārī, VII, 464.

163 Al-Bukhārī reports on the authority of Abū Hurayra that Ja'far was particularly generous to poor folk, and that Ibn 'Umar would say "peace be upon you, son of the possessor of two wings" to 'Abdullah b. Ja'far b. Abī Tālib; Fath al-bārī, VII, 499-500. Muslim includes a lengthy report on the authority of Abū Mūsā l-Ash'arī and Asmā' of his leadership role in the return of the ship of Muhājirūn who left for Abyssinia prior to the Hijra and returned in 7/629 while the Prophet and his army were at Khaybar, Saḥīḥ Muslim bi-sharḥ al-Nawawī, XVI, 53-4.

164 Al-Bukhārī has two variants of a hadīth in which the Prophet says "O God teach him wisdom (al-hikma)" and "O God teach him the Book;" Fath al-bārī, VII, 470-1. Muslim has the expression "O God, make him understand (faqqihhu)!" and lbn Abī Shayba has "O God, make him understand the religion and teach him the inner meaning (al-ta'wīl);" Saḥīh Muslim bi-sharh al-Nawawī, XVI, 331-2; al-Kītāb

al-muşannaf fi l-ahādīth wa l-āthār, VI, 386.

Another striking observation is the presence of only one Anṣārī, Sa'd b. Mu'ādh, 166 and one late convert, Jarīr b. 'Abdullāh al-Bajalī¹⁶⁷ among this Muhājirūn-heavy coterie. Three of these twenty sahāba are women, and the hallmark Sunnī belief in the relationship between the relative merits of the first four caliphs and their historical sequence is reinforced in all four of these sources, each of which begins with Abū Bakr and ends with 'Alī. Finally, it is somewhat curious that all of the shūrā members appointed by 'Umar are found among these most esteemed sahāba except the tie-breaker 'Abd al-Rahmān b. 'Awf.

One of the major effects of the fada'il chapters in these hadīth books is the redemption of three of the four $sah\bar{a}b\bar{i}$ leaders of the failed insurrection against 'Alī at the Battle of the Camel. Talha's recovery is the least thorough, as his merits are limited to the mutilation his hands suffered in his defense of the Prophet Muhammad at Uhud and do not include any actual prophetic utterances. 168

ions is shared strongly by al-Tabarī, who includes an impressive array of reports in his exegesis of this verse on the authority of Umm Salama in particular, and Abū Sa'īd al-Khudrī, Anas, 'Ā'isha, Abū Hurayra and others to a lesser degree; Jāmi' al-bayān, XXII, 5-7. In fact, al-Tabarī musters only one report (on the authority of 'Ikrima') that suggests that this verse refers exclusively to the wives of the Prophet and he puts it at the end of his discussion. Ibn Kathīr actually begins his commentary on Sūra 33:33 with this lone Ikrima report prior to relating much of the pro-'Alid Tabarī material, because his primary purpose is to argue that the term ahl al-bayt includes the Prophet's wives as well as 'Alī, Fātima, and their two sons; Tafsīr al-Our'ān al-'azīm, III (Beirut: Dār al-Ma'rifa, 1995), 491-4. By the time we reach the popular ninth/fifteenth century Jalalayn, we are told that the ahl albayt in this verse are the wives (nisā') of the Prophet exclusively; Jalāl al-Dīn al-Mahallī and Jalāl al-Dīn al-Suyūtī, Tafsīr al-Jalālayn (Beirut: Dār al-Kitāb al-'Arabī,

106 Sa'd b. Mu'adh was injured in the battle against Banū Qurayza and is considered traditionally the judge who delivered the harsh verdict against this Jewish clan just prior to dying from his wounds. Both al-Bukhārī and Muslim include Jābir b. 'Abdullāh's report that the divine Throne rocked (ihtazza) when Sa'd was buried and al-Barā"s hadīth that the Prophet declared that the handkerchiefs Sa'd received in paradise were softer than the silk that several sahāba found particularly pleasing; Fath al-bārī, VII, 499-500; Sahīh Muslim bi-sharh al-Nawawī, XVI, 3-4. Al-Bukhārī also mentions a hadīth on the authority of Abū Sa'īd al-Khudrī in which the Prophet praises Sa'd's verdict against Banū Qurayza; Fath al-bān, VII, 500.

¹⁰⁷ Jarīr's triumphant destruction of the pagan pilgrimage site called Dhū Khalaşa is celebrated in the Sahīhs of al-Bukhārī and Muslim, as is his boast that the Prophet never denied him an audience (mā hajabanī) after his embrace of Islam; Fath al-bārī, VII. 521-2; Sahīh Muslim bi-sharh al-Nawawī, XVI, 29-31; al-Kītāb al-musannaf fī

l-ahādīth wa l-āthār, VI, 400.

¹⁶¹ Fātima's merits include al-Miswar b. Makhrama's report that the Prophet said "Fātima is a part (bid'a) of me and whoever angers her angers me" (Fath al-bārī, VII, 443, 476), which, according to Muslim's variants, was the reason why the Prophet forbade 'Alī to take a second wife while he was married to her; Sahīh Muslim bi-sharh al-Nawawi, XVI, 3-4. Fatima is also reported to have been questioned by 'A'isha as to why she wept and then laughed during her meeting with her father while he was on his deathbed. While the hadith in both the Sahīhs of al-Bukhārī and Muslim attributes her tears to the news of the Prophet's impending death, the version transmitted by Urwa b. al-Zubayr attributes her laughter to his prediction that she will be the first of the ahl al-bayt to join him, and that of Masrūq attributes it to his declaration that she is the "First lady of the believeing women" (sayyidat nisā' al-mu'minīn) or the "First lady of the women of the Muslim Community (umma)." The 'Urwa version is in Fath al-barī, VII, 443 and Sahīh Muslim bi-sharh al-Nawawi, XVI, 5, while the Masruq transmission is found only in the latter (ibid.).

¹⁶⁵ Note also Muslim's inclusion of a sub-chapter entitled "the virtue of those who are blood relatives to the Prophet (al-qarāba)" that consists of a hadīth on the authority of 'A'isha that the ahl al-bayt mentioned in the Qur'an 33:33 are al-Hasan, al-Husayn, Fātima, and 'Alī, Saḥīh Muslim bi-sharh al-Nawawī, XV, 157-8. This opin-

Fath al-bārī, VII, 448; Sahīh Muslim bi-sharh al-Nawawī, XV, 152; al-Kītāb almusannaf fi l-ahādīth wa l-āthār, VI, 379. The transmitters of these reports are the Basran Abū 'Uthmān al-Nahdī (d. 95/714-5) and Kufan Qays b. Abī Hāzim al-Bajalī (d. about 90/709).

Al-Zubayr fares substantially better than Talha, as he receives the sobriquet hawārī¹⁶⁹ from Muhammad, played a heroic role in battle versus Banū Ourayza, and was considered as one of 'Ā'isha's two "fathers" in another report. 170 'A'isha's merits include the angel Gabriel's salutations, a declaration of her superiority over all other women "like tharīd¹⁷¹ is superior to all other foods," the reception of gifts from sahāba courting favor from the Prophet, and the honor of having her husband pass away in her room. 172 She is also identified as the Prophet's sole wife in paradise, 173 although only a third of her boasts proclaimed in a report in the Musannaf of Ibn Abī Shayba are confirmed in the Sahīhs of al-Bukhārī and Muslim. 174 The message from these sources in unambiguous: the disastrous insurrection led by Talha, al-Zubayr, and 'Ā'isha did not denigrate their elevated

170 Fath al-barī, VII, 444-5; Şahīh Muslim bi-sharh al-Nawawī, XV. 152-4; al-Kītāb al-muşannaf fi l-ahādīth wa l-āthār, VI, 379.

172 Fath al-bān, VII, 478-9; Sahīh Muslim bi-sharh al-Nawawī, XV, 164-72; al-Kītāb

al-muşannaf fi l-ahādīth wa l-āthār, VI, 391-3.

status as sahāba who served the Prophet with distinction during his lifetime.

One final dimension of these hadith books that warrants examination is whether they successfully answer the challenge raised by Abū Ja'far al-Iskāfī and his son to find a greater sahābī than 'Alī. An obvious candidate for this distinction is Abū Bakr, whom I already mentioned enjoys the first sahābī sub-chapter in all four of the surveyed sources. Al-Bukhārī and Muslim include a noticeably greater number of hadīth in support of Abū Bakr's merits than those in praise of 'Alī, but the opposite situation is found in Ibn Abī Shayba's Musannaf and Ibn Hanbal's Kītāb fadā'il al-sahāba. 175 A closer analysis of the material reveals a far closer competion between these two men than the number of reports suggests at first glance.

Abū Bakr's primary merits are enumerated in five hadīth. The first one is transmitted by no fewer than five sahāba and states that he would have been the Prophet's intimate friend (khalīl) had the Prophet taken one, but is instead his "companion and brother in Islam." ¹⁷⁶ The second hadīth is 'Amr b. al-'Ās's direct question to the Prophet "who is most dear (aḥabbu) to you?" to which he replied "Ā'isha," and when pressed to name a man, said "her father." Two more hadīth on the authority of Abū Hurayra testify to Abū Bakr's (and 'Umar's) unfaltering belief in anything the Prophet saw, even if it involved a talking cow or wolf, as well as the Prophet's declaration that Abū Bakr will be in paradise because he is the only person to

Fath al-barī, VII, 367; Sahīh Muslim bi-sharh al-Nawawī, XV, 125; al-Kītāb almusannaf fi l-ahādīth wa l-āthār, VI. 254-5. Recall that 'Amr is one of the three sahāba accused by the Baghdādī Mu'tazila of forging anti-'Alid hadīth that I mentioned above in the previous section.

The meaning of hawārī is not particularly clear in this context. Al-Bukhārī opens the sub-chapter with Ibn 'Abbas's explanation that al-Zubayr was called hawārī because he wore white clothes and Ibn Hajar lists several possible interpretations, including helper (wazīr, nāṣir), friend (khalīl), and pure or sincere (khālis); Fath al-bārī, VII, 445. Al-Qādī 'Ivād prefers the meaning "helper" (nāsir) although he indicates that it could mean "special" (khāssa); Sahīh Muslim bi-sharh al-Nawawī, XV, 152. This term is used exclusively in the plural and in reference to the disciples of Iesus in the Our'an; see 3:52, 5:111-112, 61:14.

¹⁷¹ Ibn Hajar identifies thand from a verse of poetry as a dish in which bread is enriched with meat; Fath al-bari, VII, 480. Hans Wehr defines it as "a dish of sopped bread, meat, and broth:" A Dictionary of Modern Written Arabic, third edition (Beirut: Librairie du Liban, 1980), 102.

This is articulated not by the Prophet but rather by 'Ammar and al-Hasan during their speeches to rally the Kufans to fight with 'Alī against 'Ā'isha: I know that ['A'isha] is the Prophet's wife in this world and the Hereafter, but God is testing vou to follow Him (or: 'Alī) or her; Fath al-bārī, VII, 478; al-Kītāb al-muṣannaf fi l-ahādāth wa l-āthār, VI, 393. Muslim includes a report on the authority of 'Ā'isha herself in which the Prophet learns the identity of his wife in paradise through a dream; Şaḥīḥ Muslim bi-sharh al-Nawawī, XV, 164.

¹⁷⁴ These nine qualities which only Mary, mother of Jesus, enjoyed besides her are the following: 1) An angel came in my shape, 2) I was seven years old when I married the Prophet; 3) I was nine when I entered his house; 4) I was a virgin; 5) divine revelation came to him while he was in my room; 6) I was among his favorite (ahabb) people; 7) verses were revealed (because of me?) that, had they not been revealed, the Community would have perished; 8) I saw Gabriel, and nobody else did; 9) the Prophet died in my house; al-Kītāb al-muṣannaf fī l-ahādīth wa l-āthār, VI. 392. 'A'isha's vision of Gabriel is contradicted by the hadīth in both Sahīhs in which he offers his greetings to her and she says to the Prophet "you see that which I do not see"; Fath al-bārī, VII, 478; Sahīh Muslim bi-sharh al-Nawawī, XV, 171-2.

¹⁷⁵ Al-Bukhārī has 17 reports for Abū Bakr and only six for 'Alī; Muslim has eight for Abū Bakr, and four for 'Alī; Ibn Abī Shayba has 26 hadīth and sixteen āthār for Abū Bakr, and 35 hadīth and 36 āthār for 'Alī, In the Kītāb fadā'il al-sahāba we find 275 reports in praise of Abū Bakr and about 370 for 'Alī, although only 164 of them are on the authority of 'Abdullah b. Ahmad b. Hanbal. The sole transmitter of this book, Abū Bakr b. Mālik al-Qatī'ī, collected the remaining reports from his other teachers.

¹⁷⁶ This hadīth is transmitted by Ibn 'Abbās, Ibn al-Zubayr, Abū Sa'īd al-Khudrī, and Ibn Mas'ūd; Fath al-bārī; VII, 365-6; Sahīh Muslim bi-sharh al-Nawawī, XV, 122-3; al-Kitāb al-musannaf fī l-ahādīth wa l-āthār, VI. 351. Ibn 'Abbās's version found in al-Bukhārī reads: law kuntu muttakhidhan khalīlan la-ittakhadhtu Abā Bakr wa lākin akhī wa sāhibī. Abū Sa'īd's version, included by Muslim and Ibn Abī Shayba, has the preface that "the most beneficial person to me with respect to wealth and companionship is Abū Bakr;" amannu l-nāsi 'alayya fi mālihi wa suhbatihi Abū Bakr.

combine the qualities of fasting, following funeral processions, feeding the poor, and visiting the infirm. Finally, the Prophet's locution to an unnamed woman that "if you do not find me, go to Abū Bakr" is a not particularly subtle indicant that Abū Bakr was the most deserving of the leadership of the Muslim Community after its founder's death. 179

Al-Bukhārī culls several additional <code>hadīth</code> and <code>āthār</code> not mentioned by Muslim in support of Abū Bakr's greatness. The Ibn 'Umar report that was denigraded by Ibn al-Iskāfī, namely that "we would favor Abū Bakr, then 'Umar, then 'Uthmān at the time of the Prophet," opens the sub-chapter of Abū Bakr's merits in his <code>Sahīh</code>. 'Umar b. al-Khattāb declares Abū Bakr to be "the best of us" (<code>khayrunā</code>) in 'Ā'isha's transmission of the events of the Saqīfa, as does 'Alī himself, at least according to his son Muḥammad b. al-Ḥanafiyya. ¹⁸¹ Two blatantly anti-'Alī reports that indicate the superiority of the first three caliphs to his exclusion are also found in al-Bukhārī's <code>Sahīh</code>. ¹⁸² Finally, al-Bukhārī drives home the point of Abū Bakr (and

150 in lam tajidīnī fa-2tī Abā Bakr; Fath al-bārī, VII, 366; Şaḥīḥ Muslim bi-sharḥ al-Nawawī, XV, 126.

180 kunnā nukhayyiru bayna l-nāsi fi zamani l-nabī 🥞 fa-nukhayyiru Abā Bakr thumma Uthmān b. Affān; Fath al-bārī, VII, 364.

181 Fath al-bārī, VII, 368–9. The Ibn al-Ḥanafiyya report is as follows: I said to my father ['Alī]: "which person is best (khayr) after the Prophet?" He said: "Abū Bakr." I said "who next?" to which he replied "Umar." I was afraid that he would say "'Uthmān," so I said "Are you the next best?" to which he replied "I am but a man among the Muslims." Ibn Ḥajar remarks that the isnād is entirely Kufan, and the master critic Sufyān al-Thawrī is found in it. This report is found also in al-Kītāb al-musannaf fī l-ahādīth wa l-āthār, VI, 353.

The first of these is a report on the authority of Abū Mūsā l-Ash'arī in which Abū Bakr seeks to meet with the Prophet and is promised paradise for no particular reason along with the acceptance of his request (i'dhan lahu wa bashshirhu bi-ljanna); this identical routine occurs for both 'Umar and then 'Uthmān, the last of whom is promised paradise for "a trial that will befall him" ('alā balvā tuṣībuhu). The second hadīth follows immediately and consists of a random occasion in which Abū Bakr, 'Umar, and 'Uthmān were on Mount Uhud with the Prophet when it trembled (rajafa); the Prophet said "Be firm, Mount Uhud, for there is a Prophet, a trustworthy one (sidāfa) and two martyrs (shahīd) on it!" (Fath al-bārī, VII, 370-1). How Anas b. Mālik could have heard this report is left to the reader's imagination. Note a similar report to this one on the authority of Abū Hurayra in the Sahīh of Muslim: the mountain is Ḥirā' instead of Uḥud, and the ṣaḥāba ascending it are not just the first three caliphs, but also 'Alī, Talḥa, al-Zubayr, and, in a variant recension, Sa'd b. Abī Waqqās; Sahīh Muslim bi-sharh al-Nawawī, XV, 153.

'Umar's) superiority by the inclusion of a report in which 'Alī recalls how the Prophet used to say habitually "Abū Bakr, 'Umar and I did this, Abū Bakr, 'Umar, and I did this, and Abū Bakr, 'Umar, and I did this" and prays that God will put 'Umar in the company of his "two companions" (sāḥibayh), Muḥammad and Abū Bakr. 183

Muslim and Ibn Abī Shayba include a few additional reports that affirm Abū Bakr's superiority without identifying any particular virtues he may have possessed. The story of Abū Bakr and the Prophet in the cave during their perilous emigration to Yathrib is quoted briefly in both of these books. 184 Muslim includes 'Ā'isha's opinion that the Prophet Muhammad would have appointed Abū Bakr, 'Umar, or Abū 'Ubayda as his successors had he done so, and that the Prophet called for Abū Bakr, 'Ā'isha, and her brother in order to write some sort of succession document to prevent future generations of Muslims from quarelling over the identity of the greatest sahābī. 185 Ibn Abī Shayba includes an extraordinary report told by Abū Bakra al-Thaqafi to Mu'awiya of the Prophet's dream in which he outweighed Abū Bakr on a scale, Abū Bakr outweighed 'Umar, 'Umar outweighed 'Uthman, and the message was "[Such is the] caliphate and prophecy. and then God gave dominion (al-mulk) to whomever He wills."186 Another hadīth unique to Ibn Abī Shayba on the authority of Jābir b. 'Abdullāh is the following: the Prophet stated that "a man of paradise will enter (this room)" prior to the entrance of both Abū Bakr and then 'Umar; the third time he said this, he added "Oh God, if you wish, make it 'Alī" after which 'Alī miraculously entered. This hadīth appears to be a counterweight to the previously mentioned pro-Umayyad report and may have been forged by an adherent of the tashayyu' position, since 'Alī follows Abū Bakr and 'Umar, and 'Uthman is not even in the room, literally or figuratively. While

¹⁷⁸ Fath al-bārī, VII, 367-8; Ṣaḥīḥ Muslim bi-sharḥ al-Nawawī, XV, 127-8; al-Kītāb al-muṣamaf fī l-aḥādīth wa l-āthār, VI, 255-6. Ibn Abī Shayba does not include the story about the miraculous talking cow or wolf.

Muslim's version is found in the sub-chapter of Ṭalḥa and al-Zubayr's virtues, and not in the one devoted to Abū Bakr.

in kuntu la-arjū an yaj alaka llāhu ma'a ṣāḥibayka, li-annī kathīran mā kuntu asma'u rasūla llāhi ﷺ yaqūlu: kuntu wa Abā Bakr wa 'Umar, wa fa'altu wa Abā Bakr wa 'Umar, wa-intalaqtu wa Abā Bakr wa 'Umar, wa in kuntu la-arjū an yaj alaka llāhu ma'ahumā, Fath al-bārī, VII, 371. The setting of this hadīth is at 'Umar's funeral and the reporter of 'Alī's comments is Ibn 'Abbās.

¹⁸⁴ Şahīh Muslim bi-sharh al-Nawawī, XV, 122; al-Kītāb al-muşannaf fi l-ahādīth wa l-āthār, VI, 351.

¹⁸⁵ Şahīh Muslim bi-sharh al-Nawawī, XV, 125-6.

¹⁸⁶ khilāfatun wa nubuwwatun thumma yu'tī llāhu l-mulka man yashā'u; al-Kitāb al-muṣannaf fi l-ahādīth wa l-āthār, VI, 355.

these sub-chapters contain many positive references to Abū Bakr, most of which are recorded as prophetic utterances, little evidence is provided for the Sunnī position of the superiority of Abū Bakr over his fellow contemporaries in general, and 'Alī in particular.

Three hadīth dominate the sub-chapters of 'Alī's merits in the two Sahīhs and Ibn Abī Shayba's Musannaf. The first is the Prophet's statement that "you ('Alī) are in relation to me as Aaron was to Moses," a hadīth that Muslim heard from no fewer than nine of his teachers. 187 A particularly striking variant of this report preserved by Muslim sets this hadīth in the context of Sa'd b. Abī Waqqāş's excuse for refusing to curse 'Alī in response to Mu'āwiya's question "what prevents you from cursing Abū Turāb?"188 'Alī's military prowess is recounted in the second hadith, in which he was given the leadership position (rāva) that led to the victory at Khaybar in 7/629. 189 The Prophet's statement that 'Alī is one "who loves God and His messenger and whom God and His messenger love too" is found in most versions of this hadīth. 190 The final report found in all three sources is a positive spin put on 'Alī's nickname Abū Turāb (father of dirt) that was employed as a term of abuse during the Umayyad period. 191

While al-Bukhārī's remaining reports of 'Alī's merits are lackluster,

189 Fath al-bārī, VII, 432-3; Şahīh Muslim bi-sharh al-Nawawī, XV, 143-5; al-Kītāb

al-musannaf fi l-ahādīth wa l-āthār, VI, 372-3.

Muslim includes a hadīth that is remarkably pro-Shī'ī. It is a variant transmission of the events of Ghadīr Khumm, 192 in which the Prophet declared that he left for his community two "weighty guides (thagalayn): the Book of God... and my family (ahl baytī)—I remind you, oh God, of my family!"193 The transmitter of this hadīth, Zayd b. Arqam, even clarifies the meaning of the contentious term ahl al-bayt and defines it as not just the Prophet's wives, but all those who were prohibited from taking from the alms (sadaga), namely the families of 'Alī, his brothers 'Aqīl and Ja'far, and the family of al-'Abbās b. 'Abd al-Muttalib.194 Muslim's inclusion of this hadīth, combined with his pro-'Alīd exegesis of Sūra 33:33195 not only sets him apart from al-Bukhārī's uninspired presentation of 'Alī and his family, 196 but even supports Madelung's previously cited assertion of the elevated status of the Prophet's household during his lifetime.

The fadā'il sub-chapters found in the Sahīhs of al-Bukhārī and Muslim, the Muşannaf of Ibn Abī Shayba, and Kītāb faḍā'il al-ṣaḥāba attributed to Ibn Hanbal accomplish three major tasks with regard to the classical Sunnī position on the sahāba. The first effect is the subtle suggestion that the succession of the first four caliphs mirrored their respective excellence, as all four books are structured so that the first four sahāba mentioned are the first four caliphs in their historical sequence. Secondly, this study uncovered that all but two of the twenty most-favored sahāba were Qurayshī Muhājirūn or wives of the Prophet. Thirdly, these sub-chapters affirm the greatness of Talha, al-Zubayr, and 'Ā'isha despite their military foray against

anta minnī bi-manzilatin Hārūn min Mūsā; Fath al-bārī, VII, 434; Sahīh Muslim bi-sharh al-Nawawī, XV, 141-3; al-Kītāb al-musannaf fī l-ahādīth wa l-āthār, VI, 369. Muslim's nine sources, many of whom we have encountered in previous chapters, are Yahyā b. Yahyā al-Tamīmī, Abū Ja'far Muhammad b. al-Şabbāh, 'Ubayd Allāh al-Qawārīrī, Surayi b. Yūnus, Ibn Abī Shayba, Muhammad b. al-Muthannā, 'Ubayd Allāh b. Mu'ādh, Outayba b. Sa'īd, and Muhamad b. 'Abbād.

mā mana'aka an tasubba Abā Turāb? Sahīh Muslim bi-sharh al-Nawawī, XV, 143. The other two excuses that Sa'd puts forth in this hadīth are 'Alī's military prowess at Khaybar (the second major hadith of the virtues of 'Ali) and exegesis of the "sons of the Prophet" in Sūra 3:61 as 'Alī, Fātima, al-Hasan, and al-Husayn.

¹⁹⁰ yuhibbu llāha wa rasūlahu wa yuhibbuhu llāhu wa rasūluhu; the second half of this sentence is suppressed or cast in doubt in the Sahūh of al-Bukhārī, but found in the books of Muslim and Ibn Abī Shayba; Fath al-bārī, VII, 432-3; Sahīh Muslim bisharh al-Nawawī, XV, 143-5; al-Kītāb al-musannaf fī l-ahādīth wa l-āthār, VI, 372-3.

¹⁹¹ The gist of the story in the two Sahīhs is that the Prophet found 'Alī asleep in the mosque instead of with Fātima and that he wiped dirt (turāb) off of 'Alī's back from where his covering had slipped; Fath al-bārī, VII, 433; Sahīh Muslim bisharh al-Nawawī, XV, 147. Note that al-Bukhārī suppressed the context of this hadīth, whereas Muslim identified it as a reaction of the sahābī transmitter, Sahl b. Sa'd, to the vilification (vashtumm) of Abū Turāb (Alī) by an unidentified Marwānid governor of Medina.

¹⁹² The most famous prophetic statement uttered at Ghadīr Khumm, man kuntu mawlāhu fa-'Alī mawlāhu, is not found in either of the two Sahīh books but appears no fewer than seven times in the sub-chapter of the merits of 'Alī in Ibn Abī Shayba's Muşannaf, see al-Kītāb al-muşannaf fi l-aḥādīth wa l-āthār, VI, 368 (Burayda), 369 (Jābir b. 'Abdullāh, Sa'd b. Abī Waqqās), 371 (Zayd b. Yuthay', Abū Hurayra), 375 (al-Bara' b. 'Āzib), 376-7 (Burayda).

¹⁹³ wa anā tārikun fikum thaqalayni: awwaluhumā kitābu llāhi fihi l-hudā wa l-nūru fakhudhū bi-kitābi llāhi wa istamsikū bih . . . wa ahlu baytī udhakkirukum Allāha fi ahli baytī (said three times); this is the first of four versions cited by Muslim, all of which are on the authority of the Kufan tābi'ī Yazīd b. Havyān who heard it from Zayd b. Argam; Sahīh Muslim bi-sharh al-Nawawī, XV, 145-7.

¹⁹⁴ Sahīh Muslim bi-sharh al-Nawawī, XV, 146.

¹⁹⁵ See above, note 165.

¹⁹⁶ Al-Bukhārī's most damaging transmission in his sub-chapter of 'Alī's merits is his closing citation that the prominent Basran tābi'ī Muhammad b. Sīrīn believed that "the majority of the transmissions about (or on the authority of) 'Alī are lies;" wa kāna Ibnu Sīrīn yarā anna 'āmmata mā yurwā 'an 'Alī al-kadhibu, Fath al-bārī, VII, 434.

'Alī, and some of them even endeavor to redeem 'Alī's $sah\bar{a}b\bar{t}$ opponents at Siffin, Mu'āwiya and 'Amr b. al-'Ās. Perhaps the most striking finding is that these reports provide lackluster evidence of the superiority of Abū Bakr over 'Alī, and the fact that six of the twenty most-favored ṣaḥāba are blood relatives of the Prophet could potentially support the claims of the Zaydiyya/Baghdādī Mu'tazila and Madelung that 'Alī was both a feasible successor to the Prophet and enjoyed a uniquely privileged relationship (like that between Aaron to Moses) with him. While these selections from a few third/ ninth century hadīth books clearly refute the extreme Rāfidī opinion that all but a handful of sahāba apostasized immediately after the death of the Prophet, they do seem a long cry from the classical Sunnī ideal of the collective probity of the Companions, and, instead, promote a moderate position that certain of these men and women distinguished themselves from the masses by their loyalty to the Prophet and by his explicit praise of their actions and character.

VI.4.2 Ibn Sa'd and the art of prosopography

Ibn Sa'd's al-Tabaqāt al-kabīr contains entries of variable length for 1371 male and 629 female sahāba. This vast array of material not only rectifies the oversight of the role of the Anṣār and later converts found in the fada'il chapters of the four hadith compilations just surveyed, but also emphasizes the collective role of the sahāba in the formative period of Islam. Ibn Sa'd pays respect to the 140 men killed in the major battles led by the Prophet Muhammad as well as the twelve casualties at the raid on Mu'ta, and the fifty-five sahāba deaths at the battle of Yamāma at 'Aqrabā' during the brief caliphate of Abū Bakr. 197 Al-Tabaqāt al-kabīr is far more than a memorial to the sahāba who gave their lives to the establishment of Islam and instead provides basic information as to the identies of the major figures who were the earliest Muslims, those who excelled on the battlefield, and those who were gifted with superior knowledge, three qualities which were and continue to be held in considerable esteem in the eyes of Muslims. The next several paragraphs show how Ibn Sa'd transcends the question of the identity of the "best" $sah\bar{a}b\bar{a}$ (or $sah\bar{a}ba$) that concerned many of his contemporaries and, instead, provides valuable information as to how the venture of Islam succeeded in establishing a firm base in the Hijāz during the lifetime of the Prophet Muḥammad.

Ibn Sa'd quotes a definition of the term $sah\bar{a}b\bar{i}$ that was championed by his teacher Muḥammad b. 'Umar al-Wāqidī and is remarkably similar to the one put forth by Abū Ḥātim al-Rāzī a century later. Al-Wāqidī states:

Whoever saw the Messenger of God 26 and saw his forbearance (hilm) and submitted and understood ('aqala') the religion and its goodness (radiyahu) is a companion of the Prophet, in our opinion, even if it was for just an hour of the day. His companions are of different stations and classes, and [differ according] to precedence in their conversion. Every man is described by what he saw of the conduct of the Prophet and what he heard from him; this is what determines his degree of greatness as a companion 198

All of the companions $(ash\bar{a}b)$ of the Messenger of God $\not\equiv$ were Imāms who should be emulated and whose actions have been preserved. They were asked to issue legal rulings and did so, they heard $had\bar{a}th$, and they conveyed them. 199

Al-Wāqidī even divides the sahāba who outlived the Prophet into three categories according to their roles in hadīth transmission: 1) those whose hadīth were preserved; 2) those who gave fatwas; 3) those who did not transmit any hadīth, even though they may have enjoyed a close acquaintance with the Prophet out of fear of inaccurate transmission, or due either to their being ignored (by the $t\bar{a}bi^c\bar{u}n$) or due

Fourteen sahāba were killed at Badr, seventy-nine at Uhud, five at Khandaq, thirteen at Khaybar, and twenty-two at either al-Hunayn or al-Ta'if according to Ibn Sa'd. Note that he reports that eight were killed at Ajnadayn and nine at the Battle of the Bridge during the reign of 'Umar.

¹⁹⁰⁸ kullu man ra'a rasūla llāhi 🎏 wa qad adraka l-hilma fa-aslama wa 'aqala amra l-dīni wa radiyahu fa-huwa 'indanā mimman ṣaḥiba l-nabī 🇮 wa law sā'a min al-l-nahāri wa lākinna aṣḥābahu 'alā manāzilihim wa ṭabaqātihim wa taqaddumihim fi l-islāmi fa-yūṣafu kullu rajulin minhum bi-mā adraka min amri l-nabī 🇮 wa bi-mā sami'a minhu fa-yarji'u dhālika ilā ṣuḥbatihi 'alā qadri manāzilihim min dhālika; al-Ṭabaqāt al-kubrā, VIII, 604-5. The context of this remark is the entry of Jarīr b. 'Abdullāh al-Bajalī, who entered Islam during the last five months of the Prophet's life. Al-Wāqidī refutes the opinion attributed to Sa'īd b. al-Musayyab by his grandson that a ṣaḥābī had to spend at least a year or two or fought in a battle or two with the Prophet in order to earn his status by citing the example of Jarīr and by this definition of a sahābī.

¹⁹⁹ wa kullu aṣḥābi rasūli llāhi ﷺ kānū a'immatan yuqtadā bi-him wa yuḥfazu 'alayhim mā kānū yaf 'alūna wa yustaftūna fa-yuftūna wa sami'ū aḥādūtha fa-addūhā; al-Tabaqāt al-kubrā, II, 439. The context for this citation is al-Wāqidī's explanation as to why to few hadūth are transmitted on the authority of senior sahāba and so many from the youger 'jurist' saḥāba. The simple reason for this discrepancy, he says, is due to the fact that the older saḥāba passed away before they were asked many questions.

to their devotion to religious acts and jihād.²⁰⁰ It should be clear from these comments that al-Wāqidī's opinions concerning the sahāba fall squarely in the Sunnī camp (despite his poor reputation as a hadīth-transmitter) and it is quite likely that his effort to "gather all of the names that have reached us of participants in the Prophet's battles... and who transmitted hadīth from him" inspired (if not directly contributed to) Ibn Sa'd's prosopographical achievement.²⁰¹

The primary division of the saḥāba in al-Ṭabaqāt al-kabīr is five classes according to the date of the earliest battle in which an individual participated. Ibn Sa'd identifies 333 participants at Badr, 351 who were early Muhājirūn and Anṣār but did not participate at Badr, 308 who embraced Islam prior to the conquest of Mecca (8/630), 333 who entered Islam after the conquest of Mecca, and 46 who were young at the time of the Prophet's death. While these 1371 entries represent only a fraction of the reported 30,000 participants in the expedition to Tābūk (who must have been saḥāba by al-Wāqidī's definition), they give some indication as to the scale of the nascent Muslim community prior to the conquest of Mecca and provide a foundation for a closer examination of the leaders, many of whom were invisible in the faḍā'il sub-chapters of the ḥadīth books that we just studied.

Ibn Sa'd shifts attention away from the acrimonious dispute over the "first male convert" and instead identifies three groups of the earliest Muslims whose adoption of Islam was critical in the first decade of Muḥammad's mission. The first group consists of twentynine men who converted to Islam prior to the Prophet's "entry into the house of al-Arqam," an event associated near the initiation of public preaching of Islam roughly three years into the prophetic mission. ²⁰⁴ It includes famous saḥāba, such as Abū Bakr, 'Alī, Bilāl, Sa'd

201 wa qad katabnā min aṣḥābi raṣūli llāhi 🛎 kulla man intahā ilaynā ismuhu fī l-maghāzī... wa man rawā 'anhu minhum al-ḥadītha; al-Ṭabaqāt al-kubrā, II, 440.

b. Abī Waqqāṣ, Ṭalḥa, 'Uthmān, al-Zubayr, 'Abd al-Raḥmān b. 'Awf, Ibn Mas'ūd, Abū 'Ubayda b. al-Jarrāḥ, and Ja'far b. Abī Ṭālib, as well as six men who lost their lives in battle during the lifetime of the Prophet.²⁰⁵ Sa'īd b. Zayd b. 'Amr was another member of this group, and Khabbāb b. al-Aratt (d. 37/657) survived serious abuse at the hands of the Meccans but died in Kufa as 'Alī was on his way to the battle of Ṣiffīn.²⁰⁶ While Ibn Sa'd provides relatively little information about the remaining eleven saḥāba who entered Islam "prior to Arqam," he does perform the service of indentifing the core believers whose adherence to Islam in the hostile environment of Mecca ultimately attracted the attention of the first converts among the Ansār.

Ibn Sa'd identifies ten Anṣār who met the Prophet in Mecca and embraced Islam prior to the 'Aqaba meetings that occassioned the Hijra. 'Uqba b. Wahb earned a unique distinction of being a Muhājir-Anṣārī since he stayed with the Prophet in Mecca after his conversion and did not return to his hometown until the Hijra.²⁰⁷ Dhakwān b. Qays and As'ad b. Zurāra also receive the honor of being the first Khazraj converts to Islam, although the former was killed at Uḥud and the latter was to live for only nine months after the Hijra.²⁰⁸ Ibn Sa'd mentions 'Awf b. al-Ḥārith, Jābir b. 'Abdullāh b. Ri'āb, Quṭba b. 'Āmir b. Ḥādīda, and 'Uqba b. 'Āmir b. Nābi'

²⁰⁰ Al-Tabaqāt al-Kubrā, II, 440.

The division of the female saḥāba section is, by necessity, arranged differently; the first group are the daughters, paternal aunts, paternal nieces, and wives of the Prophet, followed by 117 women who converted prior to the Hijra, and concludes with 349 women who took the oath of allegiance to the Prophet in Medina; see al-Tabaqāt al-kubrā, VIII and Ruth Roded, Women in the Islamic Biographical Collections (Boulder, CO: Lynne Rienner Publishers, Inc., 1994), 21–38.

²⁰³ Al-Wāqidī gives the number 30,000 for the Tābūk campaign; al-Ţabaqāt al-kubrā, II, 440.

²⁰⁴ The Prophet's entry into the house of al-Arqam is not mentioned in Ibn

Hishām's al-Sīrat al-nabawiyya; see W. M. Watt, Muhammad at Mecca (Oxford, 1953), 87. Watt quotes Caetani's dating of the event to 614, one year after the first public preaching of Islam (ibid., 59). All of the references to an individual converting prior to this event in al-Tabaqāt al-kubrā are from al-Waqidī → Muḥammad b. Ṣāliḥ → Yazīd b. Rūmān in the isnād and read something like the following: "Abū Ḥudhayſa became Muslim prior to the Messenger's entry into the House of al-Ārqam in which he called [others to Islam]" aslama Abū Ḥudhayſa qabla dukhūli rasūli llāhi 描 dāra l-arqam yadū fīhā; al-Tabaqāt al-kubrā, III, 46. There are other references to Dār al-Ārqam with different isnāds for ṣaḥāba who converted in the house, such as Muṣʿab b. 'Umayr b. Hāshim and Ṭulayb b. 'Umayr b. Wahb; ibid., III, 62-66.

²⁰⁵ 'Ubayda b. al-Ḥārith was killed at Badr; 'Abdullāh b. Jaḥsh, Abū Salama b. 'Abd al-Asad, Khunays b. Ḥudhāfa, and 'Uthmān b. Maz'ūn were killed at Uḥud; 'Āmir b. Fuhayra was killed at Bi'r Ma'ūna (4/625).

²⁰⁶ Sa'īd b. Zayd was advised by his father to follow "the religion of Abraham" and is the unique transmitter of the oft-quoted *hadīth* of the "ten promised paradise"; *al-Ṭabaqāt al-kubrā*, III, 203–6. Khabbāb b. al-Aratt was a captive who was freed in Mecca by Umm 'Ammār; *ibid.*, III, 87–9.

²⁰⁷ Al-Ţabaqāt al-kubrā, III, 280. Little else is known about his life. ²⁰⁸ Al-Ţabaqāt al-kubrā, III, 300 (Dhakwān) and 307–10 (Asʿad).

among the "first six Anṣārī converts," and he adds Mu'ādh b. al-Ḥārith and 'Uwaym b. Sā'ada among the "first eight Anṣārī converts." While very little is known about any of these men,²⁰⁹ their acceptance of Islam during a difficult period of the Prophet's mission must have been significant since they redirected his energy to Yathrib and laid the groundwork for the first Muslim polity.

The most important leaders among the oft-neglected Anṣār may have been the twelve nuqabā' (leaders) who embraced Islam prior to the Hijra. These men represented eight clans among the Aws and Khazraj tribes and half of them possessed the valuable skill of literacy in Arabic. Al-Barā' b. Ma'rūr died a month prior to the Hijra, leaving a third of estate to the Prophet, and As'ad b. Zurāra, whom we just mentioned, also died prior to Badr. Sa'd b. Khaythama was killed at Badr, and Sa'd b. al-Rabī', 'Abdullāh b. 'Amr, and Rāfi' b. Mālik were all slain at Uḥud. Only four of the twelve nuqabā' outlived the Prophet: Usayd b. al-Ḥuḍayr (d. 20/641), Abū l-Haytham al-Tayyihān (d. 20/641), Sa'd b. 'Ubāda (d. 15/636), and 'Ubāda b. al-Sāmit (d. 34/654–5). The attention Ibn Sa'd devotes to these twelve founding fathers of Medinan Islam contrasts sharply with al-Bukhārī's inclusion of only Sa'd b. 'Ubāda and Usayd b. al-Ḥudayr among his sub-chapters on the virtues of the ṣaḥāba in the

Sahīh and emphasizes the collective nature of the first stages of the venture of Islam.²¹⁵

The manner of presentation in al-Tabaqāt al-kabīr makes it somewhat challenging to reduce to a meaningful number the sahāba who were most significant on the battlefield. Roughly 160 men are reported to have participated in all of the battles led by the Prophet from the time of Badr or Uhud. The following is a list of thirty-four of these loyal soldiers (in alphabetical order) for whom Ibn Sa'd provides a death date after the year 30 AH and who subsequently witnessed the unraveling of political leadership under 'Uthmān; it contains many of the names mentioned in the previous sections, as well as some new faces.

1)	'Abd al-Raḥmān b. 'Awf	(d.	32)	18)	Jabr b. 'Atīk	(d.	61)
2)	'Abdullāh b. Mas'ūd	(d.	32)	19)	Ka'b b. Mālik	(d.	50)
3)	'Abdullāh b. Zayd b. 'Abd	(d.	32)	20)	Khabbāb b. al-Aratt	•	37)
	Rabbih	`	,	,		`	,
4)	'Abdullāh b. Zayd b. 'Āṣim	(d.	63)	21)	Khawwāt b. Jubayr	(d.	40)
5)	Abū 'Abs b. Jabr b. 'Amr	(d.	34)	22)	al-Miqdād b. 'Amr	(d.	33)
6)	Abū l-Yasār, Ka'b b. 'Amr	(d.	55)	23)	Mistah b. Uthātha	(d.	34)
7)	Abū Qatāda b. Rib'ī	(d.	54)		Muhammad b.	(d.	46)
			•	,	Maslama	`	,
8)	Abū Ṭalḥa, Zayd b. Sahl	(d.	34)	25)	Qudāma b. Maz'ūn	(d.	36)
9)	Abū Usayd al-Śāʻidī				Rāfi' b. Khadīj	d.	74)
10)	'Alī b. Abī Ṭālib	(d.	40)	27)	Sa'd b. Abī Waqqāş	1 -	55)
11)	'Āmir b. 'Aws				Sahl b. Hunayf	•	38)
12)	ʻĀmir b. Rabīʻa b. Mālik				Saʻīd b. Zayd b.	•	50)
		`	,	,	'Amr	(,
13)	'Ammār b. Yāsir	(d.	37)	30)	Şuhayb b. Sinān	(d.	38)
14)	al-Arqam b. Abī l-Ārqam				Talha b. 'Ubayd	d.	36)
	•	`	•	,	Állāh	(,
15)	'Āṣim b. 'Adī	(d.	45)	32)	al-Țufayl b. al-Ḥārith	(d.	32)
16)	al-Ḥārith b. Khazama	(d.	40)	33)	'Ubāda b. al-Ṣāmit		34)
	Hudhayfa b. al-Yamān					•	36)
,	,	,	,	-/	al-'Awwām	1500)

Ibn Sa'd also identifies sahābī leaders of fifty-five raids (sarāya) commissioned by the Prophet but which he himself did not join. Six of

²⁹⁶ 'Awf was killed at Badr by Abū Jahl after having injured him (al-Tabaqāt al-kubrā, III, 257): Jābir fought in all battles with the Prophet and transmitted hadīth from him (ibid., III, 292); Quṭba fought in all of the early battles, despite serious injuries at Uḥud, led a raid, and lived until the caliphate of 'Uthmān (ibid., III, 294); 'Uqba b. 'Āmir fought in all of the battles and was killed at the battle of Yamāma in 12/633 (ibid., III, 290); Muʿādh b. al-Ḥārith appears to have avoided most battles after Badr and lived until the time of 'Alī's struggles with Muʿāwiya (ibid., III, 256-7); and 'Uwaym b. Sāʿida was promised paradise by the Prophet, was alluded to in the Qurʾān (Sūra 9:108), and died during the caliphate of 'Umar (ibid., III, 242). All of these men participated in at least one of the two 'Aqaba meetings that payed the way for the Hijra.

²¹⁰ The uncertainity expressed in this statement is in light of Watt's observation that the *nuqabā*' "do not appear to have fulfilled any function;" *Muhammad at Mecca*,

²¹¹ The literate nuqabā' were Usayd b. al-Ḥuḍayr, 'Abdullāh b. Rawāḥa, Sa'd b. 'Ubāda, al-Mundhir b. 'Amr, and Rāfi' b. Mālik.

²¹² Al-Tabaqāt al-kubrā, III, 313-4 (al-Barā') and 307-10 (As'ad).

²¹³ Al-Tabaqāt al-kubrā, III, 252 (Sa'd b. Khaythama); 270-1 (Sa'd b. Rabī'); 287-8 ('Abdullāh); 314-5 (Rāfi').

²¹⁴ Al-Mundhir b. 'Amr was killed at Bi'r Ma'ūna and 'Abdullāh b. Rawāḥa was killed at Mu'ta (after Usāma b. Zayd and Ja'far b. Abī Ṭālib); *al-Ṭabaqāt al-kubrā*, III. 284-5 and 271-4, respectively.

²¹⁵ This is not to suggest that al-Bukhārī engaged in a conspiracy to conceal the Anṣār from history, since, after all, he devotes a special chapter to them in his Ṣaḥīḥ. It is, by contrast, an observation that whatever positive merits of individual Anṣār that the Prophet may have uttered were not preserved in hadīth with sound isnāds and thus their stature in the most prestigious Sunnī ḥadīth book was reduced.

these raids were really just assassinations, often of hostile poets, 216 another five were missions to destroy idols.²¹⁷ and one was a proselytizing mission that landed 'Abd al-Rahmān b. 'Awf a royal wife.218 The remaining raids were led by twenty-nine sahāba, nine of whom led multiple ones. Zayd b. Hāritha was in charge of eight expeditions, the last of which was the disastrous raid of Mu'ta in which he was killed.²¹⁹ Ghālib b. 'Abdullāh al-Laythī led three raids, and both 'Alī and Khālid b. al-Walīd led two expeditions and a campaign to destroy an idol, respectively. Muhammad b. Maslama was in charge of two raids, as well as a participant in the assassination of Ka'b b. al-Ashraf, and Abū Qatāda b. Rib'ī, 'Amr b. al-'Ās, Bashīr b. Sa'd, and 'Ukāsha b. Mihsan al-Asadī executed a pair of expeditions. The raids led by 'Umar and Sa'd b. Abī Waqqāş both failed to engage the enemy, 220 and the one led by Abū Bakr against Banū Kilāb resulted in the capture of a lady who was traded for Muslim prisoners held in Mecca.²²¹ Once again, Ibn Sa'd does not address the question as to the name of the "greatest warrior" among the sahāba and instead provides an array of information as to the most reliable soldiers of the Prophet's armies as well as leaders of his special raids (sarāva).

The topic of the respective religious and secular knowledge of the

sahāba is perhaps the most relevent one for this project. Ibn Sa'd identifies no fewer than twenty-six poets among the sahāba, half of whom embraced Islam after the conquest of Mecca. These individuals include the Prophet's poet laureates al-Hassan b. Thabit and Ka'b b. Mālik, the famous pre-Islamic poets Labīd b. Rabī'a and Nābigha b. Ja'da, and poets who spent much of their lives in opposition to Islam and habitually slandered the early Muslims.²²² Thirteen Ansār, six of whom were among the twelve nuqabā', possessed the ability to write Arabic, something in each case that Ibn Sa'd remarks was "rare" among the Arabs prior to Islam. 223 The Ansār also dominate lists of sahāba who compiled the Qur'an during the lifetime of the Prophet, with Ubayy b. Ka'b, Mu'ādh b. Jabal, and Zayd b. Thabit being among the most commonly cited names.²²⁴ Of most importance for this study is the chapter of the twenty following sahāba who "gave fatwas, were models during the time of the Prophet and afterwards, and in whom the aggregate religious knowledge is located":225

l) 'Abd al-Raḥmān b. 'Awf	11) Abū Sa'īd al-Khudrī
2) 'Abdullāh b. 'Abbās	12) 'Ā'isha bint Abī Bakr
3) 'Abdullāh b. 'Amr b. al-'Āṣ	13) 'Alī b. Abī Ṭālib
4) 'Abdullāh b. Mas'ūd	14) 'Imrān b. al-Ḥuṣayn
5) 'Abdullāh b. Salām	
6) 'Abdullāh b. 'Umar	
7) Abū Bakr al-Ṣiddīq	
3) Abū Dharr al-Ghifārī	•
5) 'Abdullāh b. Salām 6) 'Abdullāh b. 'Umar 7) Abū Bakr al-Ṣiddīq	 14) 'Imrān b. al-Ḥuṣayī 15) Mu'ādh b. Jabal 16) Salmān al-Fārisī 17) Shaddād b. 'Aws 18) 'Ubāda b. al-Ṣāmit

9) Abū Hurayra

10) Abū Mūsā l-Ash'arī

19) Ubayy b. Kab

20) 'Umar b. al-Khattāb

²¹⁶ The assassinations include the poet Asmā' bint Marwān (led by 'Umayr b. 'Adī) 19 months after the Hijra; Abū 'Afak al-Yahūdī (led by Sālim b. 'Umayr) 20 months AH; Ka'bb al-Ashraf al-Yahūdī (led perhaps by Muḥammad b. Maslama) 25 months AH; Sufyān b. Khālid al-Hudhalī (led by 'Abdullāh b. Unays) 35 months AH; Ibn Abī l-Ḥuqayq (led by 'Abdullāh b. 'Atīk) in 6/628; and Usayr b. Zarīm al-Yahūdī (led by the naqīb 'Abdullāh b. Rawāḥa) in 6/628; al-Ṭabaqāt al-kubrā, II, 263–96.

²¹⁷ Al-Ţufayl b. 'Amr was sent to destroy the idol Dhū l-Kaffayn (8/630); 'Amr b. al-'Āṣ led the destruction of Suwā', Khālid b. al-Walīd eliminated al-'Uzzā, and Sa'd b. Zayd al-Ashhalī leveled Manāt in the same year; 'Alī b. Abī Ṭālib led the destruction of Fuls (9/630–1); al-Ṭabaqāt al-kubrā, II, 322–31.

²¹⁸ The Prophet sent 'Abd al-Raḥmān b. 'Awf to the Kalb tribe at Dūmat al-Jandal in the year 6/628 to spread Islam and instructed him to marry the daughter of the Christian king al-Aṣbagh b. 'Amr if his tribe embraced Islam. The king converted to Islam, 'Abd al-Raḥmān married his daughter Tumāḍir bint al-Aṣbagh and brought her back to Medina. She bore him Abū Salama, one of the "seven jurists of Medina" and a major ḥadīth transmitter; al-Ṭabaqāt al-kubrā, II, 294.

²¹⁹ Six of these raids occurred in the year 6/628–9; al-Ṭabaqāt al-kubrā, II, 293–5. ²²⁰ Sa'd missed a caravan he was hoping to raid nine months after the Hijra; 'Umar's raid against the Hawāzin, who fled the battlefield, took place in 7/629; al-Ṭabaqāt al-kubrā, II, 252 and 308.

²²¹ Ibn Sa'd mentions also in this section that Abū Bakr led the first pilgrimage (haji) in the year 9/630; al-Tabaqāt al-kubrā, II, 334.

²²² This group includes 'Abdullāh b. al-Zib'arī, Abū Sufyān b. al-Ḥārith, and Bushayr b. al-Ḥārith.

²²³ See, for example, the comment with regard to Sa'd b. al-Rabī': kānat al-kitāba fī l-'arabi qalīla; al-Tabaqāt al-kubrā, III, 370.

²²⁴ Al-Tabaqāt al-kubrā, II, 428–9. Other names include Abū l-Dardā', 'Uthmān b. 'Affān, 'Ubāda b. al-Ṣāmit, Tamīm al-Dārī, Abū Ayyūb al-Anṣārī, and a paternal uncle of Anas b. Mālik identified as Abū Zayd. Mujammi' b. Jāriya is reported by al-Sha'bī to have compiled all but two or three sūras, and Ibn Mas'ūd heard a little over ninety sūras from the Prophet and the rest from Mujammi'. (Note that Mujammi' does not have an entry in al-Tabaqāt al-kubrā, but is in al-Iṣāba, III, 366.) The sources for this information are al-Sha'bī, Ibn Sīrīn, Qatāda, Anas, and Muḥammad b. Ka'b al-Qurazī.

nan kāna yuftī bi-l-Madīna wa yuqtadā bi-hi min aṣḥābi rasūli llāhi ﷺ 'alā 'ahdi rasūli llāhi ﷺ wa ba'da dhālika wa ilā man intahā 'ilmuhum; al-Tabaqāt al-kubrā, II, 418.

The evidence in support of the special status of these sahāba ranges immensely. 'Abd al-Rahmān b. 'Awf, 'Abdullāh b. 'Amr, Abū Bakr, Abū Dharr, Abū Sa'īd al-Khudrī, Ibn 'Umar, 'Imrān b. al-Husavn, Salmān al-Fārisī, Shaddād b. 'Aws, and 'Ubāda b. al-Sāmit each receive three or fewer reports in support of their exceptional religious knowledge. Abū Mūsā, 'Alī, Ibn 'Abbās, Ibn Mas'ūd, Mu'ādh b. Jabal, and Ubayy are praised for their superior knowledge of the Qur'ān, some of whom praise each other's Qur'ānic knowledge. 226 'Ā'isha is the only sahābī identified as an expert of sunan, and Abū Hurayra's self-defense against the charge of spreading too many hadith (ikthār al-hadīth) is articulated both here as well as in his biography among the sahāba of the third tabaga. 227 The masters of legal opinions (fatwā, figh, or gadā') include 'Ā'isha, 'Alī, Ibn 'Abbās, and Zayd b. Thābit. Sulaymān b. Yasār is quoted as saying that 'Umar and 'Uthman elevated Zayd's opinions above those of everyone else, and al-Zuhrī mentions that Zayd's legal authority continued in Medina until his death in 45/665.²²⁸ Ibn Sa'd also provides some tantalizing references to the religious advisors (shūrā) of Abū Bakr and 'Umar which include Ibn Mas'ūd, Abū l-Dardā', and Abū Dharr according to Shu'ba and 'Uthman, 'Alī, 'Abd al-Rahman b. 'Awf, Mu'adh, Ubavy, and Zavd b. Thabit according to al-Oasim b. Muhammad. 229 Finally, only 'Alī, 'Umar, and Zayd b. Thābit are included in all

²²⁶ For example, Abū Mūsā praises Ibn Mas'ūd's recitation, and Ibn Mas'ūd praises Mu'ādh as an "obedient *umma*" like the prophet Ibrāhīm, as well as Ibn 'Abbās; *al-Ṭabaqāt al-kubrā*, II, 423, 425–6, 434. Note also that 'Umar and Anas praise Ubayy as the most learned in Qur'ān recitation; *ibid.*, II, 422.

²²⁷ This apology rests upon both two Qur'ānic verses (Sūra 2:159-60) and a prophetic *ḥadīth* in which Abū Hurayra's memory was miraculously safeguarded by his cloak. Ibn Sa'd also includes a report with Ibn 'Umar's praise of Abū Hurayra: "you are the most knowledgable among us of the Messenger of God and have memorized the most *hadīth*;" al-Tabaqāt al-kubrā, II, 432-3 and IV, 479-88.

five reports that identify the $sah\bar{a}b\bar{i}$ bastions of knowledge in a special sub-section of this chapter.²³⁰

Does Ibn Sa'd's catholic presentation of the sahāba provide any rivals to the proponents of the superiority of 'Alī b. Abī Tālib? Despite his modest-length biography, 'Alī's precedence and status with regard to the Prophet "like Aaron to Moses" is affirmed by Ibn Sa'd.²³¹ Although he shares pride of place with Zayd b. Thābit with regard to legal knowledge, the latter can hardly be considered a competitor in the realms of combat and precedence. Ibn Mas'ūd. on the other hand, was one of the earliest converts, participated in all of the Prophet's battles, and may even have had superior knowledge of the Qur'an than 'Alī. Mu'adh b. Jabal and Ubayy b. Ka'b were both early Ansārī converts who shared equally distinguished military careers and exceptional knowledge of the Qur'an. 'Umar b. al-Khattāb, whose entry in al-Tabaqāt al-kabīr is by far the longest among the sahāba, may be the strongest competitor to 'Alī, despite his post-Argam conversion; Ibn Sa'd notes not only his military support and legal knowledge, but includes a list of twelve major precedents (awā'il) that he inaugurated during his caliphate, many of which irrevocably shaped the course of Islamic civilization.²³² While Ibn Sa'd avoids the polemical dispute as to the identification of the "greatest sahābī" in al-Tabagāt al-kabīr, he does provide a mine of useful information that can be employed to distinguish the gifted and influential saḥāba from the hundreds of Muslim soldiers who simply disappeared from history the moment the fighting ceased.

punishments for alcohol consumption (80 lashes); 6) foundation of a night patrol in Medina; 7) conquests (futūh) of Syria, Iraq, and Egypt; 8) Extraction of land tax (kharāj) and poll tax (jizya); 9) construction of garrison towns (amṣār); 10) appointment of judges (qādī); 11) pension-register (dīwān) arranged by tribe and precedence in Islam; 12) transportation of food by ship from Egypt to Medina; al-Tabaqāt al-

kubrā, III, 150.

²²⁸ Al-Tabaqāt al-kubrā, II, 431. Zayd's greatest triumph was 'Uthmān's adoption of his reading of the Qur'ān as the official text; this act seriously offended Ibn Mas'ūd, who wryly complained that Zayd was a "mere youth with two locks of hair playing with boys" (wa Zayd ibn Thābit ghulāmun lahu dhu'ābatāni yal'abu ma'a l-ghilmān) at the time he was hearing the Qur'ān directly from the Prophet's mouth; ibid., II, 422.

²²⁰ Al-Ṭabaqāt al-kubrā, II, 419 (Shu'ba's report) and 426 (al-Qāsim). Note also the report in 'Umar's lengthy entry that he refused to employ saḥāba such as 'Uthmān, 'Alī, Ṭalḥa, al-Zubayr, and 'Abd al-Raḥmān b. 'Awf in the territories due to his 'revulsion against tainting them with work" (akrahu an udannisahum bi-l-'amal) and instead designated others such as Abū Hurayra, Sa'd b. Abī Waqqāş, 'Arnr b. al-'Āṣ, Mu'āwiya, and al-Mughīra b. Shu'ba in these regions; ibid., III, 150.

²³⁰ Al-Ṭabaqāt al-kubrā, Il, 426. The five sources are Sahl b. Abī Khaythama, al-Miswar b. Makhrama, Masrūq (two reports), and al-Shaʿbī. Ubayy is mentioned in four of the reports, Muʿādh and Ibn Masʿūd in three, 'Uthmān and Abū Mūsā in two, and Abū l-Dardā' in one.

²³¹ Al-Ţabaqāt al-kubrā, III, 13-5. Ibn Sa'd includes this ḥadīth in 'Alī's entry.

²³² These precedents are: 1) adoption of the title "commander of the Believers" (amīr al-mu'minīn); 2) inauguration of the Hijrī calender in Rabī'a I, 16 AH; 3) compilation of the Qur'ān on leaves of parchment (suḥuf); 4) designation of night-time vigils (probably tarāwīḥ prayers) during Ramaḍān as a practice (sunna); 5) severe

VI.4.3 Ibn Hanbal and the sahāba as hadīth-transmitters

Ibn Hanbal's mighty Musnad towers over the nine works of identical structure that were composed by his contemporaries, most of which are now lost.²³³ The format in which it has survived is due to his son 'Abdullāh's labors, and reflects a Sunnī perspective not unlike the one found in the recent discussion of the fada'il chapters in the two Sahīhs and Musannaf of Ibn Abī Shayba. The first four sections of the Musnad consist of the hadīth transmitted by the first four caliphs in their chronological sequence, followed by the remaining six sahāba promised paradise in Sa'īd b. Zayd's report. 234 A very brief division of four additional sahāba come next and is followed immediately by the ahl al-bayt and Banū Hāshim.235 The placement of these latter two groups of sahāba prior to the seven "prolific ones" (mukthirūn)²³⁶ suggests 'Abdullāh b. Ahmad's reverence for the blood relatives of the Prophet Muhammad similar to the respect we witnessed in Muslim's Sahīh. The remaining sections are arranged geographically (Meccans, Medinans, Syrians, Kufans, and Basrans) and conclude with the Ansar and other tribes (qabā'il). All in all, some seven hundred sahāba are found in the Musnad as hadīth-transmitters of strikingly different degrees of quantity.

The onerous task of counting $had\bar{\imath}th$ has been facilitated by Ibn Ḥajar al-'Asqalānī, who, as was mentioned earlier, grouped all reports that shared a common $sah\bar{a}b\bar{\imath}$ and $t\bar{a}bi'\bar{\imath}$ under one heading called a taraf (plural $atr\bar{a}f$) in his book $Atr\bar{a}f$ musnad al-Imām Ahmad ibn Hanbal. We can, thanks to Ibn Ḥajar, rather easily identify six classes of $sah\bar{a}ba$ who transmitted twenty or more $atr\bar{a}f$ in the Musnad of Ibn Ḥanbal. The first category consists solely of $Ab\bar{u}$ Hurayra, whose

²³⁴ They are in the following order in the *Musnad*: Talha, al-Zubayr, Sa'd b. Abī Waqqāş, Sa'īd b. Zayd, 'Abd al-Rahmān b. 'Awf, Abū 'Ubayda b. al-Jarrāh.

2278 aṭrāf are more than double the quantity of material transmitted by the next most prolific $sah\bar{a}b\bar{i}$. The second group, which I have labled 'primary transmitters', includes 'Ā'isha, Ibn 'Umar, Anas, Ibn 'Abbās, and Jābir b. 'Abdullāh. The next group, 'secondary transmitters', has four members—Abū Sa'īd al-Khudrī, Ibn Mas'ūd, 'Alī, and 'Abdullāh b. 'Amr, while the 'tertiary transmitters' consist of 'Umar, Umm Salama, Abū Dharr, Abū Mūsā, and Abū Umāma al-Bāhilī. 237 Eighteen sahāba transmitted between fifty and a hundred aṭrāf in the Musnad, and another twenty-four transmitted between twenty and fifty. The following tables provides a basic overview of this data; the number of aṭrāf Ibn Ḥajar attributes to each of these sahāba in al-Bukhārī's Ṣaḥāh is included as a tool to identify these two scholars' respective preferences of certain men and women over others. 238

Table 6.1: Abū Hurayra, Primary, Secondary, and Tertiary saḥāba

Name	Date	Ţab ^a	City/Region	Ibn Ḥanbal	Bukhārī
Abū Hurayra	58	III	Medina	2278	446
'Ā'isha bint Abī Bakr	58	Wives	Medina	1079	242
'Abdullāh b. 'Umar	74	II	Medina	1065	270
Anas b. Mālik	92	III	Basra	934	286
'Abdullāh b. 'Abbās	67	V	Mecca, Ţā'if	808	217
Jābir b. 'Abdullāh	78	II	Medina	603	90
Abū Sa'īd al-Khudrī	64	III	Medina	481	62
'Abdullāh b. Mas'ūd	32	I	Kufa	369	85
'Alī b. Abī Ṭālib	40	Ι	Medina, Kufa	333	29
'Abdullāh b. 'Amr b. al-'Ās	65	III	Medina, Egypt	320	26
'Umar b. al-Khattāb	23	I	Medina	167	60
Umm Salama	59	Wives	Medina	138	16

²³³ These books were identified above, V.2.6, note 101.

²³⁵ The prominent placement of the small collections of hadīth transmitted by 'Abd al-Raḥmān b. Abī Bakr, Zayd b. Khārija, al-Ḥārith b. Khazma and Sa'd mawlā Abī Bakr is puzzling; the men of the ahl al-bayt include al-Ḥasan, al-Ḥusayn, 'Aqīl b. 'Alī, Ja'far b. Abī Ṭālib, and 'Abdullāh b. Ja'far; those of Banū Ḥāshim are al-'Abbās and his sons al-Faḍl, Tammām, 'Ubayd Allāh, and the prolific 'Abdullāh.

²³⁶ Ibn Mas'ūd, Ibn 'Umar, 'Abdullāh b. 'Amr b. al-'Āṣ, Abū Hurayra, Abū Sa'īd al-Khudrī, Anas b. Mālik, and Jābir b. 'Abdullāh. The inclusion of Abū Rimtha's brief *musnad* and exclusion of 'Ā'isha's enormous collection in this section is also peculiar.

²³⁷ His name is Şudayy b. 'Ajlān and he embraced Islam after the conquest of Mecca. Abū Umāma settled in Syria and lived until 86/705. Note that Ibn Sa'd states that Abū Umāma was only 61 years old when he died, which would make him too young to be a saḥābī; al-Tabaqāt al-kubrā, VII, 196. Al-Dhahabī includes a report that Abū Umāma was thirty at the time of the Farewell Pilgrimage, which would make him over a hundred years old when he died; al-Dhahabī, Siyar, III, 359-63.

²³⁸ Ibn Ḥajar provides this information regarding the aṭrāf of the ṣaḥāba in Ṣaḥāḥ his introduction to Fath al-bārī, Hady al-sārī, 659-61.

Table 6.1 (cont.)

Name	Date	Tab	City/Region	Ibn Ḥanbal	Bukhārī
Abū Dharr al-Ghifārī	31	II	Syria, Rabadha	137	14
Abū Mūsā al-Ash'arī	52	II	Iraq	118	57
Abū Umāma al-Bāhilī	86	IV	Syria	107	3

[&]quot; Tab refers to the tabaga of the sahābī in Ibn Sa'd's al-Tabagāt al-kabīr.

Table 6.2: Minor saḥāba: 50-100 aṭrāf

Name	Date	Ţab	City/region	Ibn Ḥanbal	Bukhārī
'Uqba b. 'Āmir	58	III	Egypt	97	9
al-Juhanī					
al-Barā' b. 'Āzib	72	III	Kufa	94	38
Muʻādh b. Jabal	18	I	Syria	. 91	6
Ḥudhayfa b. al-Yamān	36	II	Iraq	85	22
'Imrān b. al-Ḥuṣayn	52	III	Basra	82	22
Ubayy b. Ka'b	30	I	Medina	77	7
'Uthmän b. 'Affån	36	I	Medina	73	9
Burayda b. al-Ḥusayn	63	Π	Basra, Marw	73	3
Abū I-Dardā'	18	Π	Syria	71	4
'Ubāda b. al-Ṣāmit	34	I	Syria, Ramla	65	9
Samura b. Jundab	58	II	Basra	61	3
Mu'āwiya b. Abī Sufyān	60	IV	Syria	60	8
Abū Ayyūb al-Anṣārī	52	I	Medina, Syria	ı 56	0
Jābir b. Samura al-Suwā'ī	74	IV	Kufa	54	2
al-Mughīra b. Shu'ba	50	III	Iraq	51	11
Sa'd b. Abī Waqqāş	55	I	Iraq	51	20
Abū Bakra al-Thaqafī	50	$IV^{\scriptscriptstyle b}$	Basra	51	0

h Abū Bakra Nufay' b. Masrūḥ (or al-Ḥārith) lacks an entry in the saḥāba section of al-Ṭabaqāt al-kabīr, he was a freed captive after the raid of al-Ṭā'if according to Ibn 'Abd al-Barr; al-Isti'āb, on the margin of al-Isāba, III, 568.

Table 6.3: Minor saḥāba: 20-50 atrāf

Name	Date	Ţab	City/region	Ibn Ḥanbal	Bukhārī
Abū Bakr al-Şiddīq	13	I	Medina	46	22
Zayd b. Thābit	45	III	Medina	44	8
Abū Qatāda al-Anṣārī	54	II	Medina, Kufa	43	13
Sahl b. Sa'd al-Anṣārī	91	III	Medina	41	41
Zayd b. Arqam	68	III	Kufa	40	6

Table 6.3 (cont.)

Name	Date	Ţab	City/Region	Ibn Ḥanbal	Bukhārī
Thawbān <i>mawlā</i> Rasūl Allāh	54	III	Ramla, Ḥims	38	0
Usāma b. Zayd	54	Π	Syria, Medina	ı 37	16
Ibn Abī Awfā ^c	86	III	Kufa	34	15
Salama b. al-Akwāʻ al-Aslamī	74	III	Medina	32	20
Muʻādh b. Anas al-Juhanī	75	na ^d	Egypt	31	0
'Amr b. al-'Āṣ	51	III	Egypt	28	3
al-Nu'mān b. Bashīr	65	III	Kufa	28	6
Zayd b. Khālid al-Juhanī	78	III	Medina	27	5
Abū Masʻūd al-Anṣārī	na	II	Kufa, Medina	27	0
'Abdullāh b. al-Zubayr	73	V	Medina	26	10
Jarīr b. 'Abdullāh	54	IV	Jazīra	25	10
Maymūna bint al-Ḥārith	61	Wives	Medina	25	7
al-Zubayr b. al-'Awwām	36	Ι	Medina, Iraq	22	9
Jubayr b. Muṭʻim al-Nawfalī	57	III	Medina	22	9
'Awf b. Mālik al-Ashja'ī	73	III	Ḥims	22	1
'Abdullāh b. al-Mughaffal	59	III	Basra	21	0
Abū Rāfi' al-Qibṭī, maɪvlā Rasūl Allāh	40	II	Medina	20	1
'Ammār b. Yāsir	37	I	Kufa	20	4
Faḍāla b. ʿUbayd al-Anṣārī	53	II	Syria	20	Ō

^{&#}x27; His name is 'Abdullāh b. 'Algama.

"His name is 'Uqba b. 'Amr, and he probably died during Mu'āwiya's reign.

What does this data tell us besides the interesting observation that Ibn Hanbal included twice as many hadīth on the authority of 'Alī than those on the authority of 'Umar, whereas al-Bukhārī selected twice as many 'Umar hadīth as 'Alī ones? The members of the first table, namely the fifteen most prolific sahābī hadīth-transmitters in the

d Mu'ādh b. Anas lacks an entry in al-Ṭabqāt al-kabīr, neither Ibn Ḥajar nor Ibn 'Abd al-Barr indicates his date of conversion; al-Iṣāba, III, 426 and 366 (margin).

Musnad, consist of six saḥāba who were prominent in the fadā'il subchapters that we examined,²³⁹ two who were mentioned in half of the sources,²⁴⁰ and seven who received either negligable or no recognition in these books. This last group includes Abū Hurayra, Anas b. Mālik, Jābir b. 'Abdullāh, Abū Sa'īd al-Khudrī, and 'Abdullāh b. 'Amr b. al-'Āṣ, Umm Salama, and Abū Umāma; only three of these companions are found among Ibn Sa'd's saḥāba who "gave fatwas and were models during the time of the Prophet and afterwards." While the presence of such distinguished saḥāba as 'Alī, 'Umar, Ibn Mas'ūd, Ibn 'Abbās, and 'Ā'isha among this group of fifteen prolific hadāth-transmitters is to be expected, the prominent presence of mildly praised men such as Abū Hurayra, Anas, Abū Sa'īd al-Khudrī, and 'Abdullāh b. 'Amr and even relatively unknown men such as Jābir b. 'Abdullāh and Abū Umāma al-Bāhilī comes as a surprise in light of the previously examined early Sunnī books.

The forty-one saḥāba found in the two charts of 'minor' transmitters in the Musnad include relatively few of the most exalted Companions of the Prophet. Ubayy, 'Uthmān, and Sa'd b. Abī Waqqāṣ transmitted between 50 and 100 aṭrāf, and Abū Bakr, Usāma b. Zayd, Jarīr b. 'Abdullāh, al-Zubayr b. al-'Awwām, and 'Ammār b. Yāsir transmitted a mere 20-50 aṭrāf. A particularly surprising case is Zayd b. Thābit, who received so much praise in al-Tabaqāt al-kabīr for his religious knowledge and yet transmitted a mere 44 aṭrāf in Ibn Ḥanbal's Musnad. Twenty-five of these saḥāba lack any recognition in the faḍā'il sub-chapters of the the four books that I analyzed above, 242 and seven of them fail to transmit a single ḥadīth in al-Bukhārī's Ṣaḥīḥ. 243 Several religious advisors to the caliphs Abū Bakr and 'Umar named by Ibn Sa'd such as Abū l-Dardā', Abū Dharr, Mu'ādh b. Jabal, and the previously mentioned Ubayy,

'Uthmān, and Zayd b. Thābit, are found among these modest contributors to the *Musnad*. Finally, a clique of 'Alī's most inveterate enemies, such as al-Nu'mān b. Bashīr, Mu'āwiya, 'Amr b. al-'Āṣ, Samura b. Jundab, al-Mughīra b. Shu'ba, and Ibn al-Zubayr, are also among these minor *ḥadīth*-transmitters, while Abū Ayyūb and 'Ammār are the only pro-'Alī supporters found among them.

One other topic that should be addressed is the relationship between a sahābī's death date and magnitude of his or her hadīth transmission in Ibn Hanbal's Musnad. It is not a coincidence that the seven most prolific sahāba of the Musnad all lived well into the reign of Mu'āwiya and three of them even witnessed the second fitna of 60-73/680-92. What is more surprising is just how many long-lived sahāba did not transmit a large amount of hadīth; eleven of the eighteen 'minor sahāba' who transmitted 50-100 atrāf and nineteen of the twenty-three minor sahāba in the 20-50 atrāf range lived through at least half of the reign of Mu'āwiya if not longer. One would expect far more than 41 atrāf from Sahl b. Sa'd (d. 91/710) of Medina and 34 atrāf from the Kufan Ibn Abī Awfā (d. 86/705), both of whom embraced Islam prior to the conquest of Mecca, especially given the fact that 91 atrāf were traced back to Mu'ādh b. Jabal who passed away over sixty years prior to them. While early death dates have been used from at least the time of al-Wagidī as as an explanation for the minor contribution to the hadīth literature by such luminaries as Abū Bakr, 'Uthmān, Ubayy, Abū l-Dardā', and al-Zubayr (not to mention Talha and 'Abd al-Rahman b. 'Awf who transmitted fewer than twenty atrāf), it should be clear from these charts that a lengthy life was by no means a guarantee for a priviledged role in hadīth transmission, even though it was a prerequisite for the most prolific sahāba.

The most important observation with regard to this project is that the structure of Ibn Ḥanbal's Musnad provides an implicit argument for the collective probity of the saḥāba. None of the seven most significant ṣaḥābī transmitters was among the highly lauded Muhājirūn, although three of them did receive sub-chapters in support of their merits in the two Ṣaḥāḥs, the Muṣannaf of Ibn Abī Shayba, and Ibn Ḥanbal's Kītāb faḍā'il al-ṣaḥāba. Fifty-three men and three women, the majority of whom entered Islam after the battle of Uhud, transmitted at least twenty aṭrāf in the Musnad. Most of these men lacked any distinction in the fields of precedence in conversion, warfare, and knowledge in Ibn Sa'd's al-Ṭabaqāt al-kabīr, although the most

²³⁹ These six are 'Ā'isha, Ibn 'Umar, Ibn 'Abbās, Ibn Mas'ūd, 'Alī, and 'Umar.
²⁴⁰ Abū Mūsā and Abū Dharr.

Abū Hurayra, Abū Sa'īd al-Khudrī, and 'Abdullāh b. 'Amr b. al-'Ās.

²⁴² 'Uqba b. 'Āmir al-Juhanī, al-Barā' b. 'Āzib, al-Nu'mān b. Bashīr, 'Imrān b. Huṣayn, Burayda b. al-Ḥuṣayb, Samura b. Jundab, Abū Ayyūb al-Anṣārī, Jābir b. Samura, al-Mughīra b. Shu'ba, Abū Bakra al-Thaqafī, Abū Qatāda, Sahl b. Sa'd, Zayd b. Arqam, Thawbān mawlā Rasūl Allāh, Ibn Abī Awfā, Salama b. al-Akwā', Mu'ādh b. Anas, Zayd b. Khālid, Ibn al-Zubayr, Maymūna bint al-Ḥārith, Jubayr b. Muṭ'im, 'Awf b. Mālik, 'Abdullāh b. al-Mughaffal, Abū Rāfi' al-Qibṭī, and Faḍāla b. 'Ubayd.

²⁴³ Abū Ayyūb al-Anṣārī, Abū Bakra al-Thaqafī, Thawbān, Muʻādh b. Anas, Abū Masʿūd al-Anṣārī, 'Abdullāh b. al-Mughaffal, and Faḍāla b. 'Ubayd.

exceptional individuals are almost all present. Finally, the Musnad could only have contributed to the rehabilitaion of 'A'isha after the Battle of the Camel, Ibn 'Umar and Abū Huravra after their unwillingness to support 'Alī's star-crossed counter-caliphate, and 'Abdullāh b. 'Amr's decision to stick by his father and Mu'awiya in the battle of Siffin and its aftermath. Other sahāba who rejected 'Alī's authority and raised the eyebrows of the Zaydiyya and Baghdādī Mu'tazila, such as Mu'āwiya, 'Amr b. al-'Ās, al-Mughīra, and Samura are also included in the Musnad, although the musnad format makes it quite easy to ignore their relatively minor contributions should one wish to do so. Indeed, one of the only theoretically superior qualities of the musnad format to the topically arranged musannaf is the inherent facility for one to locate and obtain the teachings of particular sahāba whom one prefers and avoid those whom one dislikes. In other words, an Imāmī Shī'ī could extract easily the transmissions of 'Alī. al-Hasan, al-Husayn, Abū Dharr, Salmān, and Jābir b. 'Abdullāh from Ibn Hanbal's Musnad, while a Zaydī might also copy the hadīth of 'Ā'isha, Ibn 'Abbās, Ibn Mas'ūd, Umm Salama, and Mu'ādh b. Jabal. The Sunnī adherent to the dogma of the collective probity of the sahāba might feel obliged, by contrast, to copy Ibn Hanbal's entire 30,000-hadīth Musnad since the identity of the saḥābī from whom the hadith was transmitted would be of no theoretical importance and the inclusion of his or her material would be based soley upon the endurance and patience of the copyist. Ibn Ḥanbal's "Sunnī solution" to the perpetual problem of the intra-sahāba warfare is significantly closer to the classical doctrine of the "collective probity of the Companions" than the approaches put forth in the books of his contemporaries al-Bukhārī, Muslim, Ibn Abī Shayba, and Ibn Sa'd, and the vastness of his enterprise certainly laid the groundwork for his pupil Abū Hātim al-Rāzī to articulate explicitly this uniquely Sunnī belief.

VI.5 Conclusions

The doctrine of the collective probity of the saḥāba is rarely presented as a core foundational principle of Sunnī Islam. The notion that all of the witnesses of the Prophet Muhammad were honest reporters of what they saw and heard has been questioned rarely by Sunnī or Western scholars, the latter of whom tend to ignore the

great mass of them in their narratives of early Islamic history. This chapter built upon Madelung's recent book *The Succession to Muhammad* and endeavored to demonstrate the extraordinary significance of the intra-ṣaḥāba wars that traumatized the nascent Muslim Community during its first three decades of post-prophetic existence.

The Imāmī Shī'ī position with regard to the sahāba in both its mufawwida and mugassira manifestations exhibited extreme historiographical, exegetical, and even cosmological interpretations of reality. Al-Kashshī's reports on the authority of Muhammad al-Bāgir and Ja'far al-Sādiq that all of the sahāba save Salmān al-Fārisī, Abū Dharr, and al-Migdad, apostasized during the ridda and that only four additional ones returned to the fold of Islam represents an extraordinary feat of sectarian historiography. Al-Kulaynī's mufawwida approach avoids the historical question of the ridda altogether and relies instead upon creative Our'anic exegesis, a customized Sunnī hadīth about the pillars of Islam, and an unswerving belief in the supernatural knowledge of twelve men and boys, most of whom are never even quoted in his book. These books not only defy most sensitive readings of history and the Qur'an, but seek to erase the thousands of men and women who literally built the foundations of Islam and spread it throughout the Fertile Cresent. This feat is accomplished by means of the creation of a "pillar of Islam," the Imamate of 'Alī, al-Hasan, al-Husayn, and nine of his descendents, for which neither the Qur'an nor the Sunnī hadīth provide unambiguous proof. While the Imamī rejection of the saḥāba who fought against 'Alī during his counter-caliphate can be seen as a logical reaction to these traumatic events, the rejection of highly learned sahāba such as Ubayy b. Ka'b, Mu'ādh b. Jabal, and Ibn Mas'ūd because they did not give 'Alī the bay'a at the death of the Prophet is difficult to comprehend unless one, like al-Kulaynī, considers the acknowledgement of the Imamate of 'Alī (al-walāya) to be one of the pillars of Islam.

The Zaydī/Baghdādī Mu'tazilī attitudes towards the saḥāba represents a moderate path between the Imāmī Shī'ī rejectionism and the Sunnī blanket acceptance of them. Only a small number of hadīth-transmitting saḥāba, such as Abū Hurayra, Mu'āwiya, 'Amr b. al-'Āṣ, Samura b. Jundab, al-Nu'mān b. Bashīr, and al-Mughīra b. Shu'ba are rejected by partisans of these two groups for the simple reason that these men either cursed or insulted 'Alī, or were criticized as weak ḥadīth-transmitters. Their rational argument for the superiority of 'Alī over all other ṣaḥāba, including Abū Bakr, was

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based upon his qualities of precedence in conversion to Islam, courage in warfare, religious knowledge, and, on occasion, asceticism. Unlike the Imāmī Shī'a, who would consider 'Alī the best in all of these categories, the Zaydiyya and Baghdādī Mu'tazila were happy to mention other sahāba who excelled in these qualities and were satisfied that only 'Alī was considered among the best in all four categories. Although this argument failed to attract many early Sunnīs, it is possible that the moderate position of the Zaydiyya and Baghdādī Mu'tazila contributed to the profound respect for 'Alī and his family found in the Musnad of Ibn Hanbal, Musannaf of Ibn Abī Shayba, and Saḥāh of Muslim that seems stronger than the fourth-place status accorded him by Sunnī doctrine.

The three third/ninth century Sunnī approaches to the sahāba that I discussed provide hints as to how the doctrine of their collective probity came into existence. The faḍāʾil sub-chapters of the two Sahīhs, the Muṣannaf of Ibn Abī Shayba, and Kītāb faḍāʾil al-ṣahāba elevated twenty ṣahāba to a particularly high status. The high percentage of both Qurayshī Muhājirūn and Hāshimīs among the most celebrated twenty ṣahāba denigraded the role of individual Anṣār in the birth of Islam, although it did secure the authority of most of the leaders on the losing side of the Battle of the Camel. The absence of sub-chapters of faḍāʾil for many of the opponents of ʿAlī in the wars during his counter-caliphate indicates that the individual hadīth of this genre played a minimal role in the Sunnī adoption of the belief in the collective probity of the sahāba.

Ibn Sa'd's prosopographical approach to the saḥāba led him to include information about a vast number of the first generation of Muslims. His citation of al-Wāqidī's opinion that all saḥāba were Imāms may have led him to refrain from criticizing the reliability of any of them and certainly inspired him to track down as many of them as possible. While Ibn Sa'd shuns the hot question of the "best saḥābī," The does provide clues as to the most excellent warriors, earliest converts, most erudite scholars, and most pious ascetics among the first generation of Muslims. Despite the fact that Ibn Mas'ūd, Ubayy b. Ka'b, Mu'ādh b. Jabal, and 'Umar are not explicitly designated as rivals to 'Alī, they certainly shine with similar brilliance in al-Tabaqāt al-kabīr. Ibn Sa'd's masterpiece is certainly in harmony with the Sunnī notion of the collective probity of the Companions of the Prophet and preserves precious information about

hundreds of these religious authorities that may otherwise have been lost over the course of history.

Ibn Hanbal's Musnad is the most overt champion of the principle of the collective probity of the sahāba among the third/ninth century Sunnī books surveyed in this chapter. Numerous men whom history may have ignored, such as Abū Sa'īd al-Khudrī, Jābir b. 'Abdullāh, and Anas b. Mālik, serve as major religious authorities alongside famous sahāba like 'Alī, 'Ā'isha, 'Umar, Ibn 'Umar, and Ibn Mas'ūd. Even more striking is the presence of partisans of the fiercely anti-'Alī Umayyad regime, such as Abū Hurayra, al-Nu'mān b. Bashīr, al-Mughīra b. Shu'ba, 'Amr b. al-'Ās, Samura b. Jundab, and Mu^cāwiya himself, as authoritative hadīth-transmitters. Finally, relatively unknown sahāba, such as Thawbān, Salama b. al-Akwā', and Abū Mas'ūd al-Anṣārī contribute almost equally to Ibn Hanbal's book as the towering figures of Abū Bakr, Zayd b. Thābit, and 'Ammār b. Yāsir. Ibn Hanbal's Musnad, like Ibn Sa'd's al-Tabagāt al-kabīr, exudes the spirit of the collective probity of sahāba regardless of their roles in the internecine conflicts of the first thirty years of post-prophetic Islamic history, and suggests that the global activity of hadīth compilation contributed more to the Sunnī adoption of the principle of the collective probity of the sahāba than the actual transmissions stressing the merits of individual Muslims found among these reports.

CHAPTER SEVEN

A COMPARATIVE STUDY OF THE METHODS OF HADĪTH-TRANSMITTER CRITICISM OF IBN SA'D, IBN MA'ĪN, AND IBN HANBAL

VII.1

The second fundamental principle upon which the third/ninth century hadīth scholars articulated Sunnī Islam was the original discipline of hadīth-transmitter criticism. The two primary means of hadīth-transmitter criticism employed by the third/ninth century critics were absolute grades and comparisons between individual scholars. Grades were the most popular technique and consisted of several dozen terms and expressions, the most universally prominent of which were thiga (reliable) and da'if (weak). I traced the emergence of these two terms in connection with Shu'ba, Mālik, and Ibn 'Uyayna in the fourth chapter, and remarked that their students appear to have adopted them, despite the poor state of preservation of their opinions. Ibn Sa'd, Ibn Ma'īn, and Ibn Hanbal are the earliest scholars from whom a significant body of critical opinions has survived and are of particular importance for this core Sunnī discipline.1 After a brief exposition of the most thorough classical explanation of the grades employed by hadīth-transmitter critics, I shall analyze the

It is for this reason that I have analyzed the earliest compilations of their opinions—al-Tabaqāt al-kabīr, al-Dūrī's Tārīkh, and 'Abdullāh b. Aḥmad's 'Ilal—instead of al-Mizzī's Tahdhīb al-kamāl, which presents all of their opinions in one location for each man. Both al-Dūrī and 'Abdullāh b. Aḥmad were the preeminent pupils of their master teachers, and so their reports are of particular value. One of the unintended consequences of this methodological decision was a much lower rate of overlap between the opinions of all three of these men for any individual than one would encounter had I used Tahdhīb al-kamāl. It will be clear from the following analyses that al-Dūrī was concerned primarily with Ibn Maʿīn's opinions of unreliable transmitters, whereas 'Abdullāh was conservative in his transmission of his father's critical opinions. A potentially more fruitful early source for a comparative analysis of Ibn Maʿīn and Ibn Ḥanbal's critical opinions is Ibn Abī Ḥātim's Kūtāb al-jarh wa l-taʿdīl, as the compiler has assembled a large number of their opinions from a variety of sources.

grades and their respective frequencies of employment by Ibn Sa'd, Ibn Ma'īn, and Ibn Ḥanbal, and conclude with a comparison of their evaluations of a few hundred hadīth-transmitters. A final topic that will be addressed is the relatively minor role of sectarian labels in the three sources under scrutiny. The findings of this chapter demonstrate both individual preferences for the employment of specific grades and a high degree of consensus as to the reliability (or lack thereof) of a substantial number of these men.

One of the most extensive discussions of the grades used by Sunnī hadīth critics is found in al-Suyūṭī's commentary on al-Nawawī's abridgement of Ibn al-Ṣalāḥ's Muqaddima entitled Tadrīb al-rāwī fī sharḥ taqrīb al-Nawāwī.² I mentioned earlier that the twenty-third chapter of Ibn al-Ṣalāḥ's Muqaddima includes a discussion of the expressions used in ḥadīth criticism that was based on Ibn Abī Ḥātim's four categories of validation (ta'dīl) and four categories of invalidation (jarh). Al-Suyūṭī's commentary includes the opinions of al-Dhahabī, 'Abd al-Raḥmān b. al-Ḥusayn al-ʿIrāqī (d. 806/1403-4), and Ibn Ḥajar, regarding the valences of grades not mentioned by al-Nawawī in his abridgement, many of which are found in the earliest sources of this discipline. The following is a translation of this informative section of Tadrīb al-rāwī, al-Suyūṭī's comments have been summarized in the footnotes.

Topic 13: The expressions used in hadīth criticism. Ibn Abī Ḥātim arranged them into appropriate categories. The categories of validation are the following:

- [1] The highest [terms] are trustworthy (thiqa), or precise (mutqin), or reliable (thabt), or proof (hujja), or truthful memorizer (fadlun hāfiz), or exact $(d\bar{a}bit)^3$
- [2] The second [category] is sincere (sadūq) or 'occupying a position of sincerity' (mahalluhu al-sidq), or 'not bad' (lā ba's bihi); Ibn Abī Hātim said that we write down the hadith of these people and consider it Lyunzaru fihi) [as evidence when making a decision]. It is the second level, as we have said, because these expression do not

indicate exactitude (dabt), and we are cautious with this type of hadīth as we previously mentioned [in this category]. It is reported that when Yaḥyā b. Ma'īn said "not bad" he meant "trustworthy" (thiqa). This case only applied to him, as transmitted by Ibn Abī Hātim on the authority of the scholars of this art.⁵

[3] The third [category] is Shaykh. His hadīth are written and considered [evidence when making decisions]⁶

[4] The fourth [category] is "pious [with regard to] hadīth" (sāliḥ al-hadīth) and his hadīth are taken into consideration (li-l-'stibār) [when making a judgement].

As for the expressions of invalidation, they are arranged as follows:

- [1] If they say "soft in hadīth" (layyın), then his hadīth are written and considered as evidence. Al-Dāraqutnī said: When I say "soft in hadīth," that does not mean that his hadīth should be rejected, because he is invalidated by something that does not affect his [overall] probity ('adāla).8
- [2] When they say "not strong" (laysa bi-qawī) they write down his hadīth, but this is worse than "soft."
- [3] If they say "weak in hadīth" (da'īf al-hadīth), this is worse than "not strong." His hadīth are not rejected, although [this defect] is taken into consideration.
- [4] If they say "his hadīth are rejected" (matrūk al-ḥadīth), or "weak [in hadīth]" (wāhin), or liar (kadhdhāb), then he must be ignored and his hadīth may not be written.¹⁰

⁷ Al-'Irāqī adds: sadūq in sha'a llāh, arjū an lā ba'sa bihi, suwayliḥ; Ibn Ḥajar adds to this list maabūl.

⁸ Al-'Irāqī adds: fīhi līn, fīhi maqāl, du"ifa, yu'raf wa yunkar, laysa bi-dhāk, laysa bi-lmatīn, laysa bi-hujja, laysa bi-'umda, laysa bi-mardiyyin, li-l-da'f mā huwa, fīhi khalaf, takallamū fīhi, mat'ūn fīhi, sayvi' l-hifz.

9 Al-Trāqī also mentions: daʿīf faqat, munkar al-hadīth, hadīthuhu munkar, wāhin daʿafūhu 10 Al-Trāqī also mentions: rudda hadīthuhu, raddū hadīthahu, mardūd al-hadīth, daʿīf jiddan, wāhin bi-l-marra, tarahū hadīthahu, muṭṭarrah, muṭṭarrah al-hadīth, irmi bihi, laysa bi-shay', lā yusāwī shay'an, wa waylayhā, matrūk al-hadīth, matrūk, tarakūhu, dhāhib, dhāhib al-hadīth, sāqit, hālik, fihi nazar, sakatū 'anhu, lā yu'tabaru bihi, lā yu'tabaru bi-l-hadīth, laysa bi-l-thiqa, laysa bi-thiqa, ghayr thiqa wa lā ma'mūn, muttaham bi-l-kadhib or bi-l-wad', waylayhā kadhdhāb yakdhibu, dajjāl waddā', yada'u, wada'a hadīthan.

² Al-Suyūtī, *Tadrīb al-rāwī*, I, 186-8.

³ Al-Suyūtī remarks that the both al-Dhahabī and al-ʿIrāqī added a category that is higher than this: if one (or more) of these expressions is repeated, such as thiqa thiqa, or thiqa thabt, or thiqa hujja, or thiqa hāfiz. As for Ibn Ḥajar (called Shaykh al-Islām by al-Suyūtī), there exists an even higher level than this, namely anything in the superlative form (af ʿal), such as awthaq al-nās or athbat al-nās, or related expressions; al-Suyūtī adds lā athbata minhu or man mithlu fulān.

⁺ Al-'Irāqī adds to this category ma'mūn, khayyir, and laysa bihi ba's.

⁵ Al-'Irāqī says that Ibn Ma'īn never said "my opinion 'not bad' is the same as my opinion 'trustworthy';" rather, to whomever he applies this term, the person is trustworthy at a lower degree of trustworthiness. He then mentions a report from Ibn Mahdī who, when asked about Abū Khalda, said "he is sadūq, ma'mūn, khayyir, [examples of] thiqa are Shu'ba and Sufyān." Also, note that al-Dhahabī considers maḥalluhu al-ṣidq lower than ṣadūq for linguistic reasons (i.e., it is a ṣīgha mubālagha). Al-'Irāqī also follows him in this regard.

⁶ Al-ʿIrāqī adds: maḥalluhu l-ṣidq, ilā l-ṣidq mā huwa, shaykh wasat, mukarrar jayyid al-ḥadīth, and ḥasan al-ḥadīth. Ibn Ḥajar adds sadūq sayyi' al-ḥifz, ṣadūq yahimu, ṣadūq lahu awhām, ṣadūq taghayyara bi-akhiritin. He also appends to this those who were affiliated with a type of bidʿa, such as tashayyuʻ, qadar, naṣb, irjā', and tahajjum.

All of the following expressions are self-explanatory, as we have indicated previously: 'someone from whom the people transmitted' (fulānun rawā 'anhu l-nās), average (wasaṭ), 'mediocre in ḥadīth' (muqārib al-ḥadīth), '1 inconsistent (muḍṭarib), non-authoritative (lā yuḥṭajju bihi), unknown (majhūl); '1 nothing (lā shay'); 'not all that' (laysa bi-dhālka), 'not that strong' (laysa bi-dhāk al-qawī), 'there is a weakness in him' or 'in his ḥadīth' (fīhi aw fī ḥadīthihi ḍa'f); '1 do not know of any bad [qualities with regard to him]' (mā a'lamu bihi ba'san). '14

VII.2 Ibn Sa'd: Grades

The inclusion of Ibn Sa'd in a comparison with towering critics like Ibn Ma'īn and Ibn Ḥanbal requires some explanation, especially in light of my findings in the fourth chapter that only al-Mizzī included him among the master critics. The most important reason for this decision is that Ibn Sa'd was the earliest scholar who composed a book in which a large number of critical grades were included. We are at the mercy of the memories of various pupils of Ibn Ma'īn and Ibn Ḥanbal for their opinions, and even those two scholars' works were often little more than disorganized notes rather than books. Another motivating factor for the study of Ibn Sa'd's book is the fact that he evaluated over 1100 men and employed more than thirty grades in this process. A final reason for the selection of al-Tabaqāt al-kabīr was its unique inclusion of quantitative indicators as to the amount of hadīth that an individual transmitted, information that is of great value for the eighth chapter.

The following table indicates the number of individuals to whom Ibn Sa'd applied a particular grade in *al-Tabaqāt al-kabīr*. Note that many men receive multiple grades, and that certain grades that were applied to fewer than three individuals have not been included. ¹⁵

Table 7.1: A Catalog of Grades in al-Tabagāt al-kabīr

	Grade	Translation	Tone	Total
l	thiqa	trustworthy	positive	681
2	thiqa in shā'a llāh	trustworthy, hopefully	positive	87
3	ḍa ^c īf	weak	negative	83
4	ma'rūf	known	ambiguous	39
5	ma'mūn	secure	positive	37
6	ʿābid	constant worshipper	ambiguous	37
7	sāliḥ al-ḥadīth/sāliḥ	pious	positive	35
8	ʻālim	knower, scholar	ambiguous	32
9	thiqa-ḥujja	trustworthy-authority	positive	28
10	thiqa-thabt	trustworthy-reliable	positive	28
11	thiqa-şadūq	trustworthy-sincere	positive	28
12	wari ^c	pious	ambiguous	26
13	<i>lā yuḥtajju bihi</i> and	not authoritative	negative	26
	laysa bi-ḥujja			
14	fāḍil	distinguished	positive	17
15	fīhi ḍaf	weakness in his transmission	negative	17
16	munkar al-ḥadīth	suspect in hadīth	negative	12
17	laysa bi-dhāk	not all that	negative	12
18	lahu faḍl	meritorious	positive	12
19	thiqa-ḥujja-thabt	trustworthy, authority, reliable	positive	11
20	ʿā lī	elevated	positive	11
21	şadüq	sincere	positive	10
22	khayyir	munificent	positive	10
23	rafi	elevated	positive	10
24	matrūk and turika	abandoned, rejected	negative	10
25	ikhtalat/ightalat/taghayyar	corrupted (when older)	negative	10
26	daʻīf jiddan	very weak	negative	9
27	Shaykh	senior teacher	positive	8
28	tukullim/yutakallam fihi	questionable in transmission	negative	7
29	yudallis	he practices deceptive transmission	negative	7
30	laysa bi-shay'	nothing, worthless	negative	6
31	jāni ^r	compiler, comprehensive	positive	4

There are several general observations that merit attention prior to a more detailed analysis of certain of Ibn Sa'd's grades. Two salient aspects of Ibn Sa'd's critical approach are the high percentage of positive grades and the overwhelming dominance of the term thiqa. While seventeen of these thirty grades are positive and twelve are negative, it is striking that only two of the most frequently employed

¹¹ These three categories are the same as 'Shaykh' ([4] in validation above).

¹² These three categories are equivalent to 'weak in *hadīth*' ([3] in invalidation above).

¹³ These categories fall in the same category as 'soft in *ḥadīth*' ([1] in invalidation above).

¹⁴ This is either category [1] of invalidation or category [4] of validation.

¹⁵ Some of these terms will be mentioned in the discussion of Ibn Sa'd's negative grades below.

grades are negative. ¹⁶ Ibn Sa'd uses each of the remaining ten negative grades seventeen or fewer times throughout the entire al-Tabaqāt al-kabīr. His employment of the grade thiqa is, by contrast, staggering, as it appears by itself or in compound expressions in no less than 852 entries of hadīth-transmitters. The remainder of this discussion of Ibn Sa'd's critical technique will focus on his strategies for the identification of particularly weak scholars, an examination of the recipients of ambiguous grades, and, finally, his application of unique series of positive terms for what must have been, in his opinion, the most reliable hadīth scholars among his predecessors.

Ibn Sa'd's negative grades run the gamut from gentle warnings that a reliable transmitter made mistakes to harsh language. Examples of trustworthy scholars who made mistakes include 'Abd al-Wahhāb b. 'Abd al-Majīd, 17 Nāfi' b. 'Umar, 18 and Ja'far b. Burgān al-Kilābī. 19 Ibn Sa'd also identifies six reliable men who "probably made errors or were confused" or who "probably transmitted suspect hadīth."20 An additional eight reliable transmitters—Sa'īd b. Abī Sa'īd al-Magburī, Yazīd b. Abī Ziyād, 'Abd al-Rahmān al-Mas'ūdī, Sa'īd b. Iyās al-Jurayrī, Sa'īd b. Abī 'Arūba, Jarīr b. Hāzim, al-Hajjāj b. Muhammad, and Muhammad b. Kathīr—are all identified by Ibn Sa'd as making errors or becoming confused at the end of their lives.²¹ Ibn Sa'd also reports that a few reliable transmitters, like Ibn Ishaq and Isra'il b. Yūnus, had their anonymous detractors who considered them weak.²² Finally, a small number of prominent scholars, such as 'Abdullah b. Wahb, Hafs b. Ghiyāth, and even Ibn Hanbal's teacher Hushavm b. Bashīr, are identified as having engaged in tadlīs, the deceptive act of attributing the *ḥadīth* that one heard from a weak teacher to a more reliable one from whom different material was heard.²³

Ibn Sa'd employs several of the negative grades found in Ibn Abī Ḥātim's first, third, and fourth categories of invalidation that were mentioned at the beginning of this chapter. Al-Suyūṭī quoted al-'Irāqī's opinion that the terms 'not authoritative', 'not all that', and 'questionable transmission' were the mildest form of invalidation, and the table above illustrates that Ibn Sa'd used these terms in moderation. His favorite grade to indicate the quality of weakness in a hadīth-transmitter was da'īf, and the majority of scholars who received it were natives of Iraq. Several particularly harsh terms for transmitters found in both Tadrīb al-rāwī and Ibn Sa'd's al-Ṭabaqāt al-kabīr are 'very weak', 'abandoned', and 'worthless', and from these signifiers one can derive the following table of Ibn Sa'd's fifteen least favorite hadīth-transmitters:

Table 7.2: Ibn Sa'd's least favorite hadith transmitters

_	Name	City	Ţab	Grade	Reference (ȚK 2001)
l	Abān b. Abī 'Ayyāsh	Basra	4	matrūk	IX, 253
2	'Abd al-Raḥmān b.				,
	Zayd b. Aslam	Medina	6	ḍa'īf jiddan	VII, 592
3	Abū Juzayy Naṣr b. Ṭarīf	Basra	5	laysa bi-shay', turika hadīthuhu	IX, 285
4	Al-Ajlaḥ b. 'Abdullāh al-Kindī	Kufa	4	da'īf jiddan	VIII, 469
5	ʻAmr b. Abī l-Miqdam al-ʻIjlī	Kufa	6	laysa bi-shay'	VIII, 505
6	'Amr b. Shimr al-Ju'sī	Kufa	6	da'īf jiddan, matrūk	VIII, 501
7	'Amr b. 'Ubayd	Basra	4	laysa bi-shay'	IX, 272

²³ The entry for Ibn Wahb reads: kāna kathīra l-ʿilm, thiqa fī mā qāla haddathanā wa kāna yudallis; ŢK 2001, IX, 527. The entry for Ḥafṣ reads: kāna thiqatan maʾmūnan thabtan illā annahu kāna yudallis; ibid., VIII, 512. Hushaym's entry in the most detailed: wa kāna thiqatan kathīra l-hadīth thabtan yudallisu kathīran; fa-mā qāla fī hadīthihi akhbaranā fa-huwa hujjatun, wa mā lam yaqul fīhi akhbaranā fa-laysa bi-shay'; ibid., IX, 315. Other men whom Ibn Saʿd accuses of tadlīs are Abū Usāma Ḥammād b. Usāma, 'Aththām b. 'Alī, 'Umar b. 'Alī al-Muqaddamī, and even Anas b. Mālik's major pupil Ḥumayd b. Abī Ḥumayd al-Ṭawīl.

¹⁶ These two grades are da'if (83 uses, plus nine da'if jiddan) and lā yuḥtajju bihi (25 uses).

¹⁷ Ibn Sa'd grades this Basran thiqa, fihi da'f; TK 2001, IX, 290-1.
¹⁸ Ibn Sa'd grades this Meccan thiqa, fihi shay'; TK 2001, VIII, 56.

¹⁹ Ibn Sa'd grades Ja'far thiqa-sadūq, kathīr al-khaṭa' and remarks that he had fiqh, fatwā, and riwāya; TK 2001, IX, 487-8.

²⁰ These are the Basrans Hammām b. Yaḥyā (rubbamā ghaliṭa), Ḥammād b. Salama (rubbamā haddatha bi-l-ḥadīth munkar), and Abū Dāwūd al-Ṭayālisī (rubbamā ghalaṭa); Isḥāq b. Yūsuf al-Azraq of Wāsiṭ (rubbamā khuliṭa); Ibrāhīm b. Sa'd b. Ibrāhīm of Medina (rubbamā akhṭa'a fī hadīth); and 'Ubayd Allāh b. 'Amr b. Abī l-Walīd (rubbamā akhṭa'a) of northern Iraq; see TK 2001, IX, 281, 282, 299, 317, 324, 490.

²¹ The expression is *ightalața* (or *ikhtlața* or *taghayyar*) fi ākhir 'umrih. See TK 2001, VII, 424; VIII, 460, 486; IX, 260, 273, 278, 335, 495, respectively. Note that Dickinson has labeled this type of criticism as "conditional;" Dickinson, *The Development of Early Sunnite* Hadīth *Criticism*, 93-4.

²² The expression used is minhum man yastad ifuhu; TK 2001, VII, 552; VIII, 495.

²⁴ Ibn Sa'd labels as da's a total of 83 men: 28 Kufans, 17 Basrans, 7 Medinans, 7 Meccans, 5 Baghdadis, 5 Northern Iraqis (Jazīra), 5 Syrians, 4 inhabitants of Wāsit, 2 Khurāsānīs, 2 Egyptians, and al-Hudhayl b. Bilāl al-Fazārī of al-Madā'in. Sixty of these men (72%) are Iraqis.

Table 7.2 (cont.)

	Name	City	Ţab	Grade	Reference (ȚK 2001)
8	Jābir b. Yazīd al-Ju'sī	Kufa	4	da ^c īf jiddan	VIII, 464
9	Muḥammad b. al-Faḍl	Marw	na	matrūk	IX, 382
10	Muḥammad b. al-Să'ib	Kufa	5	da'if jiddan	VIII, 478-9
	al-Kalbī			. 55	
11	al-Muțțalib b. Ziyād	Kufa	7	da'īf jiddan	VIII, 509
12	Talḥa b. 'Amr				
	al-Ḥaḍramī	Mecca	4	da'if jiddan	VIII, 56
13	'Ubayda b. Mu'attib				
	al-Þabbī	Kufa	4	da'īf jiddan	VIII, 474
14	'Uthmān b. Miqsam	Basra	5	laysa bi-shay',	IX, 285
	al-Burrī			turika ḥadīthuhu	
15	Yaḥyā b. Salama b.				
	Kuhayl	Kufa	6	ḍa'īf jiddan	VIII, 501

The data in this table sheds much-needed light on the origins of thoroughly unreliable transmitters. It is striking that the earliest group of these men lived during the fourth tabaga, roughly at the turn of the first Islamic century, a generation prior to Shu'ba and the origins of hadith criticism. Even more fascinating is the geographical distribution of these earliest weak transmitters, as Ibn Sa'd suggests that this cancer appeared simultaneously in Basra, Kufa, and Mecca, although the deepest roots were sunk in the first two of these cities. Basra seems to have been free from extremely unreliable transmitters, in the eyes of Ibn Sa'd during the two previous generations to his, while Kufa had a trio of defective transmitters in the sixth tabaga and weathered al-Muttalib b. Ziyād in the seventh. Given Ibn Sa'd's positive attitude towards the vast majority of hadīth-transmitters whom he graded in al-Tabaqāt al-kabīr, it is clear that these fifteen men must have been a particularly unsavory lot to merit the harsh marks that they received.

Four ambiguous grades warrant a closer attention due to their relatively high frequency of appearance in al- $Tabaq\bar{a}t$ al- $kab\bar{\nu}r$. The term $ma^{\prime}r\bar{\nu}f$ is found in twenty-nine cases as the unique grade and in only ten as a supplementary comment. Six of the latter set of cases

include trustworthy scholars, two are moderately reliable, and two are evaluated by the negative expression 'not all that'. 26 As for the men for whom ma'rūf is their only qualitative grade, nineteen of them are Iraqi, seven from Syria, and only one from each of the cities of Mecca and Medina. None of these men appears to have played much of a role in the greater project of hadūth transmission, either, for Ibn Sa'd identified only six who disseminated 'some hadūth', eleven who shared 'few hadūth', and the tābi'ī Ka'b b. Sūr who did not transmit a single report. 27 One final observation about the ambiguous grade ma'rūf is that the majority of men to whom Ibn Sa'd applied it were members of the first two generations of the tābi'ūn, and it is striking that al-Ḥasan b. Thābit of Kufa is the only man living after the fourth tabaqa for whom this term is his sole grade. 28

The second ambiguous grade in al-Tabaqāt al-kabīr is 'ālim, the singular of the well known Arabic word for scholars, 'ulamā'. Like ma'rūf, 'ālim appears as both an independent and a supplementary grade. An interesting feature of Ibn Sa'd's use of this word is that it serves as the sole grade for eight of the men of the frontier lands (al-'awāsim wa l-thughūr), a Syrian, and eight Medinans. Clearly this term was most popular in reference to scholars of the Hijāz and northern Syria regions, unlike the Kufan-centered grade ma'rūf.²⁹ Even more impressive is the fact that all of the men to whom 'ālim is applied as a supplementary grade are either thiqa or thiqa-hujja,

Note that the opposite term 'not ma'rūf' occurs only once in al-Tabaqāt al-kubrā for the first tabaqā Kufan Suwayd b. Jahbal al-Ashja'ī who heard hadīth from 'Alī; TK 2001, VIII, 350.

²⁶ Four of these trustworthy scholars are first tabaqa tābi'ūn of Kuſa: Ḥabīb b. Şuhbān al-Asadī, Aws b. Dam'aj, Ḥujr b. 'Adī, and 'Alī b. Rabī'a al-Azdī; ṬK 2001, VIII, 286, 332, 337, 345. Both weak ones are also first tabaqa tābi'ūn Kuſans: Hubayra b. Yarīm and Ḥujayya b. 'Adī al-Kindī; ibid., VIII, 290, 344. The remaining men who received the supplementary grade of ma'rūf are Kināna b. Nu'aym of Basra (thiqa in shā'a llāh), al-Fadl b. 'Anbasa of Wāsiṭ (thiqa), 'Abd al-Wahhāb b. 'Aṭā' al-'Ijlī of Baghdad (sadūq-in shā'a llāh), and Sulaym b. 'Āmir of Syria (thiqa); ibid., IX, 226, 317, 335, and 468.

²⁷ Kab is the famous Basran who is reported to have come forward with a mushaf at the Battle of the Camel in an effort to prevent bloodshed and was killed by a random arrow; see TK 2001, IX, 90–2. Madelung supresses Ibn Sa'd's report in favor of a contradictory one from al-Balādhūrī, which puts Ka'b in the battle on 'Ā'isha's side, where he was killed, and states instead that a partisan of 'Alī was the one who was struck by the arrow prior to the battle; Succession, 167–72.

²⁸ He was of the seventh *tabaqa*; TK 2001, VIII, 518. Ibn Ḥajar evaluates him as *ṣadūq*, *yughrib* and reports that he has at least one report in the *Sunan* of al-Nasā'ī; *Tagrīb*, 99.

²⁹ The only Iraqis who received this label are the Kufans Wakī' b. al-Jarrāḥ, al-Hakam b. 'Utayba, and al-Qāsim b. Ma'n, the Baghdādī Abū l-Qāsim zauj bint Abī Muslim, and the venerable al-Ḥasan al-Baṣrī.

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including luminaries such as Mālik b. Anas, Mujāhid b. Jabr, 'Atā' b. Abī Rabāh, Wakī' b. al-Jarrāh, and al-Hasan al-Basrī. 30 There is no indication, in other words, of a recipient of the 'ālim grade as being unreliable, and much to suggest that it is positive. Furthermore, the fact that Ibn Sa'd reports that fifteen of these transmitted 'many hadīth' testifies to their significance in the project of hadīth compilation, as is their presence across all seven tabagāt of Islamic history.³¹

The final two ambiguous grades, wari and 'ābid, are among a small group of expressions that Ibn Sa'd uses to identify particularly pious individuals among the hadīth folk.³² Medinans and Basrans dominate this group of sixty men, and the majority of them receive the appelation 'ābid.33 This is in contrast with Kufa, ten of whose men are recognized with the word 'ābid and only Muḥammad b. Sūqa received wan'. These terms serve as supplementary grades in the vast majority of the cases, and only Abū Bakr al-Nahshalī, Layth b. Abī Sulaym, and 'Abd al-'Azīz b. Abī Rawwād received less than a thiga grade among these piety-minded transmitters.35 Once again, there are extremely prominent men among the recipients of this qualitatively ambiguous term, such as Sa'īd b. al-Musayyab, 'Alī b. al-Husayn b. 'Alī b. Abī Tālib, the caliph 'Umar b. 'Abd al-'Azīz, Mālik b. Anas, Hasan b. Hayy, al-Hasan al-Başrī, Ibn Sīrīn, Ayyūb al-Sakhtiyānī, and Ibn 'Awn.36 Finally, even though Ibn Sa'd does

not provide any quantitative indicators for twenty-four of these pious men, he does identify sixteen of them as transmitters of "many hadīth" and only six as having transmitted just a few reports.

We saw in the first chart that Ibn Sa'd applied a variety of colorful expressions to a modest group of reliable hadīth transmitters. The term thiga is supplemented with the expressions ma'mūn, thabt, and hujja in numerous cases, and an impressive coterie of seventeen men are identified with the compound grades thiga-hujia-ma'mūn and thiga-thabt-ma'mūn.37 An equally, if not more, luminous group of hadīth scholars are those whom Ibn Sa'd grades as thiga-hujja-thabt, as it includes no fewer than four of Ibn Abī Hātim's favorite hadīth scholars, as well as earlier men such as Ayyūb al-Sakhtiyānī and Yaḥyā b. Sa'īd al-Ansārī. 38 While these compound expressions all fall within the catalog of terms mentioned by al-Suyūtī quoted at the beginning of this chapter, Ibn Sa'd uses what appear to be unique terms of praise for an even smaller number of men. 'Alī b. al-Husayn b. 'Alī, al-Hasan al-Basrī, Mansūr b. al-Mu'tamir, al-Qāsim b. Muhammad b. Abī Bakr, Sa'īd b. al-Musayyab, and Sulaymān b. Yasār all are awarded both the expressions rafi' and 'ālī (elevated), and an additional seven men receive at least one of these two terms.³⁹ The most exclusive term of praise employed by Ibn Sa'd is that of jāmi' (comprehensive or compiler), which he reserves for the quartet of Ayyūb al-Sakhtiyānī, al-Ḥasan al-Baṣrī, Sa'īd b. al-Musayyab, and al-Zuhrī. My effort to construct a hierarchy of the most reliable transmitters in the eyes of Ibn Sa'd on the basis of his grades can be found in Appendix B of this book.

³⁰ TK 2001, VII, 570; VIII, 27, 28, 517; IX, 157.

The majority of men who were considered to be 'alim falls in the fourth to seventh tabagāt of Medinans (12 men).

³² Two other words that suggest piety found in al-Tabagat al-kabīr are nāsik (12 men) and zāhid (three men). Included among the group who are distinguished by the term 'ābid are several "strenuous worshipers" ('ubbād mujtahidūn), such as the first tabaqa Kufans Mi'dad b. Yazīd al-'Ijlī, 'Amr b. 'Utba al-Sulamī, and Suwayd b. Math'aba, the Syrian Abū Bakr b. 'Abdullāh b. Abī Maryam, the Medinan 'Umar b. Muhammad b. al-Munkadir (whose father was also a famed piety-minded scholar), and the Basran Sulayman al-Taymi.

³³ Twenty-seven Medinese and eleven Basrans received either wan' or 'ābid; only Ibn Abī Dhi'b of Medina and Muslim b. Yasār of Basra received both grades under discussion; TK 2001, VII, 558 and IX, 185.

³⁴ TK 2001. VIII, 458. The remaining members of this group include the Baghdādīs Mardawayh al-Sā'igh, Abū l-Oāsim zawi bint Abī Muslim, and Abū Nasr al-Tammām; 'Abd al-'Azīz b. Abī Rawwād of Mecca; Sahl Muzāhim of Khurāsān; and Ishāq b. Sulaymān of Rayy.

³⁵ The Meccan 'Abd al-'Azīz b. Abī Rawwād was graded as ma'rūf bi-l-salāh; Lavth b. Sulaym received the mark sālih-da'īf; and Abū Bakr al-Nahshalī was a transmitter "whom some declare to be weak" (minhum man yastad ifuhu); TK 2001, VIII, 55, 468, 499.

³⁶ TK 2001, VII, 119, 209, 324, 570; VIII, 496; IX, 157, 192, 246, 261.

³⁷ The following eleven men were identified as thiqa-hujja-ma'mūn: 1) 'Abdullāh b. Idrīs; 2) Abū Nu'aym al-Fadl b. Dukayn; 3) al-Awzā'ī; 4) al-Hasan al-Basrī; 5) Ibn al-Mubārak; 6) Mālik b. Anas; 7) Qatāda b. Di'āma; 8) Shu'ba b. al-Hajjāj; 9) Sufyān al-Thawrī; 10) Wakī' b. al-Jarrāḥ; 11) Yaḥyā b. Sa'īd al-Qaṭṭān. The following six are thiqa-thabt-ma'mūn: 'Abd al-Malik b. Abī Sulaymān; Hafs b. Ghiyāth; Ma'n b. 'Īsā; Sa'īd b. al-Musayyab; 'Urwa b. al-Zubayr; Zuhayr b. Mu'āwiya. See Appendix B below for references.

The four scholars recognized by Ibn Abī Hātim in the Taqdima who were thiqa-hujja-thabt according to Ibn Sa'd are Mālik, Shu'ba, Sufyān al-Thawrī, and Hammad b. Zayd. The remaining men who received this grade are 'Affan b. Muslim, Bakr b. 'Abdullāh al-Muzanī, Habbān b. Hilāl al-Bāhilī, and Hishām al-Dastawā'ī. See Appendix B below for references.

³⁹ Those who receive only rafi are 'Abdullāh b. 'Utba b. Mas'ūd, Wakī b. al-Jarrāḥ, and Yaḥyā b. Sa'īd al-Qaṭṭān; those who received soley 'ālī are Abū Bakr b. 'Abd al-Rahmān b. al-Hārith, al-Hakam b. 'Utayba, Muḥammad b. Sīrīn, and 'Urwa b. al-Zubayr.

VII.3 Ibn Ma'īn: Grades in al-Dūrī's Tārīkh

The observation in the second chapter of this book that al-Dhahabī considered Ibn Maʿīn to be among the "severe" hadīth-transmitter critics is confirmed by this study of his critical opinions as transmitted by his pupil 'Abbās al-Dūrī.⁴⁰ Although Ibn Maʿīn's use of the lackluster expression 'not bad' (laysa bihi ba's) was reported to be equivalent to thiqa in the passage of al-Suyūṭī's Tadrīb al-rāwī translated above,⁴¹ this fact merely brings the number of positive grades that he employs with any frequency in al-Dūrī's Tārīkh to three.⁴² The terms laysa bi-shay', daʿīf, and laysa bi-thiqa are particularly popular in his evaluations, and no fewer than forty-three men were accused of being outright liars (kadhdhāb or yakdhib). While Ibn Maʿīn's colorful language is restricted to delinquent transmitters, he does identify the most reliable students of prominent scholars by means of comparative grades, something that I shall investigate after a brief exposition of his absolute grades.

Table 7.3: Ibn Ma'īn's grades in al-Dūrī's Tārīkh

	Grade	Translation	Uniquea	IS^b	Multiple	Total
1	thiga	trustworthy	348	116	2	466
2	laysa bi-shay' (LBS)	nothing	193	37	11	241
3	da'if	weak	109	26	3	138
4	laysa bihi ba's	not bad	91	20	4	115
5	laysa bi-thiga (LBT)	untrustworthy	58	9	9	76
6	laysa hadīthuhu	worthless in	46	5	4	55
	bi-shay' (LHBS)	ḥadīth			_	
7	kadhdhāb/yakdhibu	liar	32	6	5	43
8	sālih	pious	18	3	1	22
9	laysa bi-qawī	Not strong	10	3	1	14
10	laysa yuḥtaṇu bihi	not authoritative	6	7	0	13

Table 7.3 (cont.)

	Grade	Translation	Unique	IS	Multiple	Total
11	lā yuktabu 'anhu	His hadīth are				
	•	not copied.	6	3	0	9
12	thabt	reliable	2	7	0	9
13	fī ḥadīthihi ḍaʿf	weakness in his				
		transmission	3	2	2	7
14	lam yadhkurhu illā	He spoke only	6	1	0	7
	bi-khayr	well of him.				
15	laysa bi-dhāk	not all that	6	1	0	7
16	rajul sū'	wicked man	5	0	1	6
17	mashhūr	well-known	4	1	0	5
18	şadüq	sincere	2	1	1	4
19	laysa bi-hadīthihi ba's	his hadīth are	3	0	0	3
		not bad				
20	laysa yusāwī shay'an	absolutely worthless	s 3	0	0	3

^a This column consists of evaluations of men who were not evaluated by Ibn Sa'd in al-Tabagāt al-kabīr.

This table reveals several qualities of Ibn Ma'īn's style of hadīth-transmitter criticism. Like Ibn Sa'd, Ibn Ma'īn employed the grade thiqa on a regular basis to a significant number of scholars and the grade da'īf to those whose transmission justified caution. Both men also use grades such as 'not strong', 'sincere', and 'non-authoritative' in moderation. It is clear, however, that this is where the similarities between these two critics largely end. Ibn Ma'īn denigrates a staggering 241 men as 'nothing', 76 as 'untrustworthy', and 55 as transmitters of 'worthless hadīth', while Ibn Sa'd grades only six men with the first term and none with the remaining two. Ibn Ma'īn rarely uses the grade thabt, and never employs the marks hujja, rafī', or 'ālī. He did identify forty-eight particularly disgraceful and dishonest hadīth-transmitters, and a complete table of these men, most of whom were not evaluated by Ibn Sa'd, can be found in Appendix C. H

⁴⁰ Al-Dhahabi's opinion of Ibn Ma'in is found in al-Mūqiza, 83.

⁴¹ This observation is found in al-Khaṭīb al-Baghdādī's al-Kīfāya fī ʿilm al-riwāya as well; al-Kīfāya, 38-9.

These terms are thiqa, laysa bili ba's, and sālili; Nūr Sayf includes the following additional seven positive grades that appear rarely: thabt, thiqa ma'mūn, laysa bih ba's-thiqa, thiqa-lam yadhkurhu illā bi-khayyir, lam yadhkurhu illā bi-khayr, sadūq, rajul sidq, shaykh sadūq; Nūr Sayf, Yahyā b. Ma'īn wa kitābuhu l-Tārīkh, I, 91. Note that I have included everyone who received the grade thiqa, whether as a compound or unique grade, under the rubric thiqa in this section.

^b This column consists of men who were evaluated by Ibn Sa'd in al-Tabagāt al-kabīr.

^{&#}x27;This column consists of men who received three or more grades from Ibn Ma'īn.

⁴³ Ibn Ma'īn did use the term *thiqa-ma'mūn* occasionally, but since it was not clear from the analysis of Ibn Sa'd's use of this term whether it added much value to the grade *thiqa*, it has not been recorded here.

⁺⁺ Al-Dūrī's Tārīkh, unlike Ibn Sa'd's al-Ṭabaqāt al-kabīr, rarely provides any biographical information about the men who are evaluated and often does not even identify their full names. Furthermore, it is thoroughly disorganized, despite a rough

Ibn Ma'īn's preferred method of identifying great hadīth-transmitters was to use superlative and comparative Arabic expressions rather than a combination of positive absolute grades. The phrase "X is more reliable (athbat) than Y" and "X is preferable to me (aḥabbu ilayya) than Y" are each found over a dozen times in al-Dūrī's Tārīkh. Ibn Ma'īn tells us, for example, that Sh'uba is more reliable than Zuhayr b. Mu'āwiya, 45 Wakī' is more reliable than Ibn Abī Zā'ida, 46 Ḥammād b. Zayd is more reliable than Ḥammād b. Salama, 47 and that 'Affān b. Muslim's transmission from Ḥammād b. Salama is more reliable than Abū Nu'aym al-Faḍl b. Dukayn's transmission from him. 48 Ibn Ma'īn's personal preference of Wakī' over 'Abd al-Raḥmān b. Mahdī is expressed in at least two places in al-Dūrī's Tārīkh, 49 as is his preference for Abū l-Aḥwaş over Abū Bakr b. 'Ayyāsh, 50 and Warqā''s tafsīr over the tafsīrs transmitted by Shaybān b. 'Abd al-Raḥmān and Sa'īd b. Abī 'Arūba.51

arrangement by geographical region. Finally, while the editor does provide valuable references to other biographical dictionaries for each evaluated individual, there does not exist an index for the book overall, making it nearly impossible to find someone. While a detailed examination of Ibn Macīn's least favorite hadīth-transmitters is outside the scope of this project, the table in Appendix C provides a basis for future studies of the men whom the classical hadīth critics wished had kept away from prophetic material altogether.

Ibn Ma'īn also identifies experts of particular bodies of transmissions from prominent early scholars. Examples of this include the absolute superiority of Hammad b. Salama with regard to the hadīth of Thabit al-Bunani, 52 Hammad b. Zayd with regard to the hadath of Ayyūb al-Sakhtiyānī, 33 and the trio Hishām al-Dastawā'ī, al-Awzā'ī. and 'Alī b. al-Mubārak with regard to the material of Yahvā b. Abī Kathīr.54 We learn that the most reliable pupils of al-Zuhrī were Mālik, Ma'mar, Yūnus, 'Ugayl, Shu'ayb b. Abī Hamza, and Ibn 'Uyayna, 55 that the companions of Abū Ishāq al-Sabī'ī were Shu'ba and Sufyān al-Thawrī,56 and that the best students of Qatāda were Sa'īd b. Abī 'Arūba, Hishām al-Dastawā'ī, and Shu'ba.⁵⁷ An example of what might be described as 'reciprocal opinions' is Ibn Ma'īn's assertion that 'Abd al-Razzāq was more reliable than Hishām b. Yūsuf for transmissions from Ma'mar, but that Hishām was more reliable than 'Abd al-Razzāq for material from Ibn Juravi.58 The most detailed hierarchy of pupils from an individual transmitter is found, not surprisingly, for Ibn Ma'īn's favorite scholar, Sufyān al-Thawrī:59

A. Best pupils of Sufyān al-Thawrī:60

l) Ibn al-Mubārak

- 4) 'Abd al-Rahmān b. Mahdī
- 2) Yaḥyā b. Sa'īd al-Qaṭṭān 5) Abū Nu'aym al-Faḍl b. Dukayn
- 3) Wakī' b. al-Jarrāḥ
- 6) al-Ashja'ī, 'Ubayd Allāh b. Ubayd al-Rahmān

⁺⁵ Ål-Dürī, *Tārīkh*, I, 272.

¹⁶ Al-Dūrī, Tārīkh, II, 37.

⁴⁷ Al-Dūrī, *Tārīkh*, II, 188.

⁴⁸ Al-Dūrī, *Tārīkh*, II, 221.

⁴⁹ Al-Dūrī, Tārīkh, I, 395 and 408. Ibn Ma'īn invoked the Qur'ānic curse of "God, the angels, and the people" (Sūra 2:161) to whomever puts Ibn Mahdī above Wakī' in the first reference; the second one merely states that transmission from Sufyān al-Thawrī from Wakī' and Yaḥyā al-Qaṭṭān is preferable to that from Ibn Mahdī.

³⁰ Al-Dūrī, *Tārīkh*, II, 52. Abū l-Aḥwaṣ's name is Muḥammad b. Ḥayyān; ṬK 2001, IX, 355.

⁵¹ Al-Dūrī, *Tārīkh*, II, 233. This is an importatant reference to the existence of some sort of *tafsīr*, compilation in the first half of the third/ninth century. Ibn Ma'īn explains his preference for Warqā''s *tafsīr* because it contains the teachings of Ibn Abī Najīḥ → Mujāhid whereas the *tafsīr* of Shaybān was based on the exegetical remarks of Qatāda. Ibn Ma'īn also indicates his preference for Sa'īd b. Abī 'Arūba's transmission of Qatāda's *tafsīr* over that of Shaybān in this same reference. Warqā''s *tafsīr* is mentioned by Sezgin, but those of Shaybān and Sa'īd are not; *GAS*, I, 37–8. On Warqā''s *tafsīr*, see Fred Leemhuis, "MS. 1075 Tafsīr of the Cairene Dār al-Kutub and Mujāhid's Tafsīr," *Proceedings of the Ninth Congress of the Union Européenne des Arabisants et Islamisants* (Leiden: Brill, 1981), 169–80. A recension of this *tafsīr* has been published as *Tafsīr Mujāhid* by 'Abd al-Raḥmān al-Ṭāhir b. Muḥammad al-Sūratī (Islamabad, n.d.). Al-Ṭabarī cites Warqā''s transmissions from Ibn Abī Najiḥ of Mujāhid's exegetical comments roughly 1000 times in his *tafsīr*, Horst, "Zur Überlieferung im Korankommentar at-Tabarīs." 297.

⁵² Al-Dūrī, *Tārīkh*, II, 231 and 267.

⁵³ Al-Dūrī, *Tārīkh*, II, 231.

³⁴ Al-Dūrī, *Tārīkh*, II, 143 and 352. Recall that al-Awzā'ī was considered one of the first men to transform his teacher's material into an organized book (*musannaf*).

⁵⁵ Al-Dūrī, Tānīkh, I, 88. This list is further refined in 'Uthmān al-Dārimī's Tānīkh that I cited in the fourth chapter, as Mālik is declared to be preferable to Ma'mar, Yūnus, 'Uqayl, and Shu'ayb b. Abī Ḥamza, and Ma'mar is proclaimed to be preferable to Yūnus and Ibn 'Uyayna; al-Dārimī, Tānīkh, 41-8.

⁵⁶ Al-Dūrī, *Tārīkh*, I, 273. Note again that al-Dārimī reports that Ibn Ma'īn considered al-Thawrī preferable to Shu'ba with regard to Abū Isḥāq's teachings; al-Dārimī, *Tārīkh*, 59.

⁵⁷ Al-Dūrī, Tānīkh, II, 192. Ibn Ḥanbal shared this opinion; see Mawsū'at aqwāl al-Imām Ahmad, IV, 39.

⁵⁸ Al-Dūrī, Tārīkh, I, 97. Ibn Ma'īn studied with both of these men during his journey to Yemen with Ibn Hanbal.

⁵⁹ Ibn Ma'īn's love for Sufyān al-Thawrī is expressed in several places in al-Dūrī's *Tārīkh*. He encouraged students to write both the *hadīth* and *ra'y* of al-Thawrī and Mālik and al-Dūrī reports that Ibn Ma'īn never put anybody above al-Thawrī when concerned with *fiqh*, *ḥadīth*, or *zuhd; ibid.*, I, 325 and 74.

⁶⁰ Al-Dūrī, Tānīkh, I, 329 and 405. Once again, this group is refined by al-Dārimī in his Tānīkh: Yahyā and Wakī are preferable to Ibn Mahdī; Wakī is preferable to Abū Nu'aym; al-Ashja i is merely sālih; and Abū Ishāq al-Fazārī (who is not mentioned by al-Dūrī) is thiqa-thiqa; al-Dārimī, Tānīkh, 61-3.

- B. Second tier pupils of al-Thawrī:61
 - 1) Yaḥyā b. Ādam
- 5) Qabīşa b. 'Uqba (d. 215/830)
- (d. 203/818)
- 6) Mu'āwiya b. Hishām al-Qassār
- 2) 'Ubayd Allāh b. Mūsā⁶²
- al-Firyābī, Muḥammad b. Yūsuf
 Abū Dāwūd al-Hafarī
- 3) Abū Aḥmad al-Zubayrī⁶³
- 8) Abū Dāwūd al-Ḥat
- Abū Ḥudhayfa
 (d. 220/835)⁶⁴
- (d. 203/818)⁶⁵

Ibn Ma'īn's identification of the most reliable pupils of individual major hadīth scholars is clearly more nuanced and precise than Ibn Sa'd's blanket compound grades, and would be of greater utility to the professional hadīth compiler forced to choose between the near-identical transmissions of a single hadīth from multiple pupils of a major scholar, such as Qatāda or Sufyān al-Thawrī. It appears also that Ibn Ma'īn had his hands full with miserable and mediocre hadīth-transmitters and saw little reason to praise first/seventh century scholars whose reputations were hardly in dispute in his day.

VII.4 Ibn Hanbal: Grades in the 'Ilal of 'Abdullāh b. Ahmad

Ibn Ḥanbal employs a diverse set of absolute qualitative grades as well as comparative statements of the type used by Ibn Ma'īn. I have restricted my analysis of Ibn Ḥanbal's grades to those found in the 'Ilal of his son 'Abdullāh for men whom Ibn Sa'd evaluated in al-Ṭabaqāt al-kabīr. The reason for this limitation is the complexity of 'Abdullāh's 'Ilal⁶⁶ as well as the primary goal of this chapter,

which is a comparison between the grades of these two men and Ibn Ma'īn. Therefore, the pool of names that fit these two criteria is only a little under 300 men, as opposed to the significantly larger samples that I examined from Ibn Sa'd and Ibn Ma'īn. Despite this limitation, it is still possible to get a sense of Ibn Ḥanbal's menu of grades and even identify some of his least and most favorite ḥadīth-transmitters. The following table provides an overview of the qualitative grades used by Ibn Ḥanbal, according to his son 'Abdullāh.

Table 7.4: Ibn Hanbal's grades in the 'Ilal

	Grade	Translation	Total
1	thiga	trustworthy	117
2	laysa bihi ba's	not bad	44
3	ṣā liḥ	pious	33
4	matrūk/tarakahu	abandoned	23
5	Shaykh	senior teacher	22
6	da ^c īf	weak	17
7	munkar, lahu manākīr	suspect <i>hadīth</i>	11
8	thiqa thiqa	very trustworthy	11
9	khayyir	munificent	11
10	laysa bi-qawī	not strong	9
11	<u>ķāfiz</u>	hāfiz	9
12	kadhā wa kadhā	this-and-that	8
13	maḥalluhu al-sidq or min maʿādin al-sidq	honest	7
14	mudṭarib	inconsistent	6
15	şadūq	sincere	6
16	yudallis	deceptive transmission	6
17	thabt	reliable	5
18	laysa bi-shay'	nothing	5
19	laysa bi-dhāk	not all that	4
20	lā yusāwī shay'an	absolutely worthless	4
21	kadhdhāb/ yakdhibu	liar	3

Ibn Ḥanbal employs a remarkably balanced list of positive and negative grades in the 'Ilal. Once again, the term thiqa dominates the critical discourse, followed by two slightly less positive grades, laysa hihi ba's and ṣāliḥ. The relatively high number of 'rejected' transmitters comes as a bit of a surprise, although the other harsh grades, such as 'nothing', 'absolutely worthless', and 'liar' are quite infrequent.

⁶¹ Al-Dūrī, *Tārīkh*, I, 329. Ibn Ma'īn also states that Abū Aḥmad al-Zubayrī, Yaḥyā b. Ādam, and al-Firyābī are all equally sound in their transmissions from al-Thawrī and that Abū Dāwūd is either good or better (*khayr*) than them; *ibid.*, I, 268.

⁶² Ibn Ma'īn informs us that 'Ubayd Allāh (d. 213/828) was his source for Sufyān al-Thawrī's Jāmī and that he had a written copy (saḥīfa) of it; al-Dūrī, Tārīkh, I, 381. 'Ubayd Allāh was also the source of Sufyān al-Thawrī's opinions for al-Tirmidhī in his al-Jāmī al-saḥīḥ; see above, III.3, note 15.

⁶³ His name is Muhammad b. 'Abdullāh b. al-Zubayr and he died in 203 in al-Ahwāz; TK 2001, VIIII, 526.

⁶¹ His name is Mūsā b. Mas'ūd and his mother married Sufyān al-Thawrī during his stav in Basra; TK 2001, IX, 305.

His name is 'Umar b. Sa'd and Ibn Sa'd described him as a hermit (nāsik); TK 2001, VIII, 527.

The chaotic structure of this book has been overcome by means of the alphabetically-arranged encyclopedia of Ibn Ḥanbal's opinions entitled Mawsū'at aqwāl al-Imām Ahmad ibn Ḥanbal (four volumes) published by 'Ālam al-Kutub in 1997.

Several new terms, most of which are positive, appear with some regularity: thiqa thiqa, khayyir, hāfiz, kadhā wa kadhā, and mudṭarib. Only one of these grades, kadhā wa kadhā, is ambiguous, although a closer examination reveals that most of the recipients of this expression were weak transmitters.⁶⁷ I shall now attempt to articulate Ibn Ḥanbal's least and most favorite hadāth-transmitters on the basis of his grades in the 'Ilal of scholars who were also evaluated by Ibn Sa'd.

Table 7.5: Some of Ibn Hanbal's least favorite transmitters in the 'Ilal

	Name	City	Ţabª	Grade
	Abān b. Abī 'Ayyāsh	Basra	4	matrūk
2	'Abd al-'Azīz b. Abān	Kufa	8	taraktuhu
3	'Abd al-Raḥmān b. Isḥāq	Kufa	5	matrūk, laysa bi-dhāk, lahu manākīr
4	'Abdullāh b. Wahb	Egypt	6	taraktuhu ^b
5	'Amr b. 'Ubayd	Basra	4	kadhdhaba, tarakahu
6	Ghālib b. 'Ubayd Allāh	North Iraq	na	taraktuhu ^c
7	al-Hārith b. 'Abdullāh			
	al-A ^c war	Kufa	1	one of the liars ^d
8	al-Hasan b. Dīnār	Basra	5	tarakahu ^c
9	Ibrāhīm b. Muhammad	Medina	7	taraka l-nāsu ḥadīthahu
	b. Abī Yahyā			
10	'Īsā b. Abī 'Īsā	Medina	5	laysa yusāwī ḥadīthuhu shay'ar
11	Isḥāq b. Yaḥyā b. Ṭalḥa	Medina	5	Shaykh matrūk
12	Jābir b. Yazīd al-Ju'fī	Kufa	4	tarakahu ^f
13	Khalaf b. Khalīfa	Wāsiṭ	na	taraktuhu wa lam aktub 'anhu shay'an
14	Muhammad b. al-Hajjāj	Baghdad	na	taraktu (or taraknā) ḥadīthahu
15	Muhammad b. Sălim	Kufa	5	shibh al-matrūk, mawdū'ag
16	Muḥammad b. 'Ubayd Allāh al-'Arzamī	Kufa	5	matrūk
17	al-Muthannā b. al-Sabbāh	Mecca	4	lā yusāwī ḥadīthuhu shay'an
18	al-Salt b. Dīnār	Basra	5	matrūk, LBS
19	Shahr b. Hawshab	Syria	2	tarakahu, da"afahu
20	Suwayd b. 'Abd al-'Azīz	Syria	6	matrūk
21	Talḥa b. 'Amr	Mecca	4	matrūk, lā shay'
22	'Ubayda b. Mu'attib al-Dabbī	Kufa	4	fihi da ^c f; tarakahu ^h

⁶⁷ Ibn Hanbal reports that two of the eight men who received this grade were declared weak by Yaḥyā l-Qaṭṭān, that another one transmitted suspect hadīth, and that a fourth one was mudṭarib. Only Ibrāhīm b. al-Muhājir al-Bajalī received this grade as well as the positive laysa bihi ba's in the 'Ilal; Mawsū'at aqwāl al-Imām Aḥmad, I, 41–2. Note that in the case of Muslim b. Khālid al-Zanjī that Ibn Ḥanbal "shook his hand" (yuḥarrik yadahu) when he said kadhā wa kadhā in a manner that insinuated that he was not reliable; ibid., III, 347–8.

Table 7.5 (cont.)

	Name	City	Ţab	Grade
23	'Umar b. Ḥafṣ al-'Abdī	Baghdad		taraknā ḥadīthahu wa kharraqnāhu
24	'Umar b. Qays, Sandal	Mecca	3	laysa yusāwī ḥadīthahu shay'an
25	Usāma b. Zayd al-Laythī	Medina	5	tarakahu; lahu manākīr
26	Yaʻqūb b. Muḥammad b. ʻĪsā	Medina	7	LBS, laysa yusāwī shay'an

^a The tabaga of each scholar is derived from Ibn Sa'd's al-Țabagāt al-kabīr.

b Ibn Hanbal rejected Ibn Wahb's hadīth because he saw him asleep during one of Ibn 'Uyayna's lectures in Mecca. His son reports that he later transmitted hadīth on Ibn Wahb's authority from one of his pupils; Mawsū'at aqwāl al-Imām Ahmad, II, 299–300. The story of Ibn Wahb's notorious nap is found also in al-Dūrī, Tārīkh, I, 92.

'Ibn Ḥanbal is merely quoting the opinion of his teacher Waki' b. al-Jarrāḥ; Mawsū'at

aqwāl al-Imām Ahmad, III, 141-2.

d Ibn Hanbal attributes this opinion to al-Sha'bī; Mawsū'at aqwāl al-Imām Ahmad, I, 213-4.

^r Ibn Ḥanbal attributes this opinion to Ibn al-Mubārak; Mawsū'at aqwāl al-Imām Aḥmad, I 252-3

f Ibn Hanbal claims that Yaḥyā l-Qaṭṭān, Ibn Mahdī, and even Sufyān al-Thawrī rejected Jābir's hadīth; Mawsū'at aqwāl al-Imām Aḥmad, I, 185-7.

^R Ibn Hanbal reports that Ibn al-Mubārak rejected him and that Hafs b. Ghiyāth declared him to be weak (da"afahu); Mawsū'at aqwāl al-Imām Ahmad, II, 263, 4.

h Ibn Hanbal mentions that 'Ubayda is on the list of those transmitters whom Ibn al-Mubārak abandoned; Mawsū'at aqwāl al-Imām Aḥmad, II, 418.

This is Yahyā l-Qattān's opinion; Mawsū'at agwāl al-Imām Ahmad, III, 83-4.

Several observations concerning Ibn Hanbal's list of disgraceful transmitters are in order. The first one is the geographical diversity of these men. While Iraqis in general, and Kufans in particular, dominate the list, it is important to note that a quarter of the rejected transmitters hail from the Hijaz, and an additional three lived in Egypt and Syria. The second point is that the vast majority of weak scholars lived during the second/eighth century and were members of generations who were pupils of the tābi'ūn and their successors. much as we found in the case of Ibn Sa'd's least favorite transmitters in Table 7.2. Finally, Ibn Hanbal records the opinions of several of the earliest master critics whom we identified in the second chapter, such as Ibn al-Mubārak, Wakī', and, in particular, his teacher Yaḥyā b. Sa'īd al-Qattān. This is a sharp break from Ibn Sa'd and Ibn Ma'īn, both of whom cite specific authorities very infrequently, and was a practice that was adopted by critics such as al-Bukhārī and Ibn Abī Hātim during the second half the third/ninth century.

Ibn Hanbal employs both absolute and relative grades in his discussion of reliable transmitters in the 'Ilal. We learn that 'Abd al-Wārith b. Sa'īd was more reliable than Ibn 'Ulayya but inferior to Hammād b. Zavd,68 that Abū l-Zubayr Muhammad b. Muslim had the largest quantity of hadīth from the sahābī Jābir b. 'Abdullāh, 69 that 'Affan b. Muslim was more reliable than Ibn Mahdī, 70 and that al-Layth b. Sa'd was the most sound pupil of Sa'īd al-Magburī.⁷¹ Ibn Hanbal observed that Wakī' made more errors (khata') than Ibn Mahdī but that Ibn Mahdī committed a greater number of orthographical mistakes (tashīf) than Wakīc. 72 Another insightful observation shared by Ibn Hanbal is that al-Qasim b. Muhammad and Ibn Sīrīn transmitted hadīth exactly as they were heard, while al-Hasan al-Basrī and al-Sha'bī transmitted merely the message without concern for the exact words.73 Ibn Hanbal was particularly interested in the hierarchy of pupils of al-Zuhrī, and told his son that while 'Alī b. al-Madīnī favored Ibn 'Uyayna, he himself preferred Mālik because the latter made only two or three mistakes in his transmission rather than the twenty or so errors of the former.74 Finally, Ibn Hanbal identified four men-Shu'ba, Sufyān al-Thawrī, Zā'ida b. Qudāma, and Zuhayr b. Mu'āwiya—as equals whom he graded as hāfiz-mutathabbit and may be considered four of the most prestigious transmitters in his eyes.⁷⁵

The following table identifies a group of Ibn Hanbal's favorite hadith scholars on the basis of the qualitive grades that he assigned to them in 'Abdullāh's 'Ilal:

Table 7.6: Some of Ibn Hanbal's most reliable hadīth scholars in the 'Ilal

	Name	City	Ţab	Grade	Reference
l	'Abd al-'Azīz b. Ṣuhayb	Basra	3	thiqa thiqa	II, 365
2	'Abd al-Ḥamīd b. Ja'far	Medina	5	thiga thiga, LBB	II, 310
3	'Abd al-Malik b. Abī Sulaymān	Kufa	4	hāfiz, thiqa	II, 379
4	Abū Ghallāb Yūnus b. Jubayr	Basra	2	thabt	IV, 176
5	Abū Sinān Ņirār b. Murra	Kufa	4	thiqa thiqa	II, 185
6	Bahz b. Asad	Basra	7	thabt b	I, 168
7	Dāwūd b. Abī Hind	Basra	4	thiga thiga	I, 353
8	Ḥammād b. Zayd	Basra	6	Imām	I, 295
9	Ibn Jurayj, 'Abd al-Malik	Mecca	4	mustathbat	II, 381
10	Ismā'īl b. Sālim al-Asadī	Baghdad		thiga thiga	I, 105
11	Kahmas b. al-Ḥasan	Basra	4	thiga thiga, Shaykh	III, 201
12	Mahdī b. Maymūn al-Azdī	Basra	5	thiqa thiqa; thiqa ^c	III, 405
13	Mālik b. Anas	Medina		hafiz, mustathbat	III, 209
l4	Marwān b. Mu'āwiya al-Fazārī	Baghdad		hāfiz hāfiz, thiqa	III, 338
15	al-Mughīra b. Miqsam	Kufa	4	dhakī, ḥāfiz	III, 390
16	Mūsā b. 'Ulayy	Egypt	4	thiga thiga, Shaykh	III, 414
17	Ṣadaqa b. Khālid	Syria	5	thiqa thiqa, sālih	II, 175
18	Saʻīd b. Abī Ṣadaqa	Basra	4	thiga thiga	II, 36
19	Shuʻba b. al-Ḥajjāj	Basra		hāfiz-mutathabbit	II, 144
20	Sufyān b. Sa'īd al-Thawrī	Kufa		hāfiz-mutathabbit	II, 54
21	Wakī' b. al-Jarrāḥ	Kufa	7	hāfiz hāfiz	IV, 83
22	Yaḥyā b. Saʻīd al-Qaṭṭān	Basra		Nobody like him ^d	IV, 114
23	Yazīd b. Zuray'	Basra	6	rayḥānat al-Basτa	IV, 148
24	Zāʾida b. Qudāma	Kufa	6	hāfiz-mutathabbit	I, 384
25	Zuhayr b. Muʻāwiya	Kufa	6	hāfiz-mutathabbit	I, 396

^{*} All references are to Mawsū'at aqwāl al-Imām Ahmad.

This analysis of the grades employed by Ibn Sa'd, Ibn Ma'īn, and Ibn Hanbal, as well as the identification of both their least and most favorite transmitters, sheds light on the first generation of Sunnī hadīth critics for whom a significant body of opinions has survived. These three men contributed to the standardization of the technical vocabulary of the nascent discipline of hadīth-transmitter criticism.

⁶⁸ Mawsū'at aqwāl al-Imām Ahmad, II, 394-5. Ibn 'Ulayya also was considered by Ibn Hanbal to grasp jurisprudence better than Hushaym b. Bashīr; ibid., I, 94-9.

Mawsū'at aqwat al-Imām Ahmad, III, 311-2. This is confirmed by our study of the atraf of Ibn Hanbal's Musnad in the next chapter; see VIII.4, note 88.

[&]quot; Mawsū'at agwāl al-Imām Ahmad, III, 13-5. This quote may apply only to their respective transmissions from Shu'ba.

¹ Mawsū'at aawāl al-Imām Ahmad, III, 205-6.

⁷² Mawsū'at aqwāl al-Imām Ahmad, II, 345.

⁷³ Mawsū'at agwāl al-Imām Ahmad, III, 271.

⁷⁴ Mawsū'at aqwāl al-Imām Ahmad, III, 211. Ibn Hanbal states that the best pupils of al-Zuhrī who transmitted a large amount of material were Yūnus, 'Uqayl, and Ma'mar, and that Ma'mar was the best of these three; ibid., III, 210.

Note that three of these four men were Kufans; this city appears to have housed both the best and worst transmitters of this period.

b Ibn Hanbal reports that Ibn Mahdī considered only Bahz to be that; Mawsū'at aqwāl al-Imām Ahmad, I, 168-9.

The second grade for Mahdī is from Shu'ba; Mawsū'at aqwāl al-Imām Almad, III, 405. Recall from the second chapter that there was not any evidence of Shu'ba using the expression thiga thiga.

d The exact quote of Ibn Hanbal is: mā ra'aynā mithla Yahyā ibn Sa'id fi hādhā l-sha'nya'nī fī l-hadīth—huwa sāḥibu hādhā l-sha'n; Mawsū'at aqwāl al-Imām Ahmad, IV, 114.

and established firmly the grades thiga, laysa bihi ba's, sālih, da'īf, and matrūk. This being said, each of the three scholars displays fiercely independent approaches to his craft. Ibn Sa'd comes across as particularly positive, and applied a variety of expressions, such as rafi', 'ālī, 'ālīm, and wari', which were idiosyncratic, and others, such as hujja and thabt, which were ultimately more popular with later critics than with his contemporaries. Ibn Ma'īn's severity in al-Dūrī's Tārīkh is manifest in his penchant for declaring a multitude of hadīthtransmitters to be entirely worthless, untrustworthy, or even liars, and his precision is evident in his preference for relative grades over absolute ones for many prominent hadīth scholars. Finally, Ibn Hanbal emerges as a moderate critic who applied motley positive expressions and relative grades to strong scholars, and who identified weak transmitters with both his own opinions as well as those of his predecessors. The importance of the standardization of the critical vocabulary of hadīth-transmitter criticism by Ibn Sa'd, Ibn Ma'īn, Ibn Hanbal and their contemporaries, lies not merely in the establishment of a set of tools that could distinguish weak hadīth from strong ones solely on the basis of isnāds; rather, it provided a vehicle by which individual scholars could express whom among their predecessors they considered to be trustworthy authorities of the prophetic teachings that lay at the very heart of the Sunnī articulation of Islam.

VII.5 Reliable and unreliable transmitters in the eyes of Ibn Sa'd, Ibn Ma'īn, and Ibn Hanbal: A comparative study

One of the intial goals of this project was the deceptively simple task of constructing a database of the critical opinions of Ibn Sa'd, Ibn Ma'īn, and Ibn Ḥanbal in order to ascertain whether they agreed or disagreed over the reliability of several hundred transmitters. This project originally envisioned a simple three-way comparison, but was stymied unexpectedly by the discovery that these three critics were interested in quite different pools of transmitters. Indeed, it came as a shock that a paltry 78 of Ibn Sa'd's 1105 evaluated men received grades from both Ibn Ma'īn and Ibn Ḥanbal in al-Dūrī's Tārīkh and 'Abdulļāh's 'Ilal, respectively. Although this endeavor was salvaged by the fact that Ibn Ma'īn graded 203 of Ibn Sa'd's men (18.4%) and Ibn Ḥanbal graded 266 (24%) of them, it is necessary to explain

why only 7% of Ibn Sa'd's evaluated men in al-Ţabaqāt al-kabīr received grades from both Ibn Ma'īn and Ibn Hanbal.

A closer look at the temporal and geographical distribution of Ibn Sa'd's 1105 evaluated transmitters is the first step towards understanding why the originally planned comparison was impossible. The following table provides an overview of these men:⁷⁶

Table 7.7: Ibn Sa'd's graded men in al-Tabaqāt al-kabīr

City	ŢΙ	Ţ 2	Ţ 3	Ţ4	Ţ 5	Ţ6	Ţ7	Ţ 8	Ţ 9	Total	%
Kufa	78	25	19	43	27	31	43	15	3	284	25.7
Medina	57	55	24	58	53	18	10			275	24.9
Basra	20	57	28	46	29	34	23			237	21.4
Baghdad										64	5.8
Mecca	1	12	23	14	11					61	5.5
Syria	8	8	12	10	12	7				57	5.2
Jazīra										26	2.4
Egypt	5	4	5	6	4	1				25	2.3
Wāsiṭ										25	2.3
Khurāsān										23	2.1
'Awāṣim										8	.72
Ayla										6	.54
Rayy										6	.54
Madā'in										5	.45
Anbār										1	.09
Andalus										1	.09
Ifrīqiyya										1	.09
Total										1105	100.1

This chart reveals Ibn Sa'd's deep interest in hadīth-transmitters who lived during the first three generations of Islamic history, as well as those who lived in the cities of Kufa, Medina, and Basra. In fact, one third (363 men) of Ibn Sa'd's graded men in al-Tabaqāt al-kabīr were members of the first three tabaqāt of these three cities, and 247 of the Medinans who were graded (22.3% of the total sample) lived

⁷⁶ The letter T refers to *tabaqa*; only the transmitters from Kufa, Medina, Basra, Mecca, Syria, Egypt, and Yemen are arranged in this manner. Note that Ibn Sa'd does not provide any critical opinions for the small number of Yemenis found in *al-Tabaqāt al-kabīr*.

prior to the generation of Mālik b. Anas (tabaqa 6). Ibn Sa'd's overwhelming interest in first/seventh century transmitters in general, and the men of Medina in particular, does not appear to have been shared by either Ibn Ma'īn or Ibn Ḥanbal, both of whom devoted their energies to the generations immediately preceding themselves and to Iraqis. This disparity, coupled with Ibn Ma'īn's predilection for uncovering the very worst transmitters, seems to account for the surprising lack of overlap between Ibn Sa'd and his two Baghdādī contemporaries.

The seventy-eight men who received grades from all three of the sample critics are a diverse lot of second/eighth century transmitters from Syria to Khurāsān. Ibn Sa'd, Ibn Ma'īn, and Ibn Ḥanbal agreed upon the reliability (or lack thereof) of all but sixteen of these men, and it is striking that Ibn Ḥanbal is always found in the majority opinion. The following table elucidates the sixteen cases over which consensus did *not* exist:

Table 7.8: Ibn Sa'd, Ibn Ma'īn, and Ibn Ḥanbal: No consensus⁸⁰

	Name	City	Ţ	Ibn Sa'd	Ibn Ma'īn	Ibn Ḥanbal
l	'Abd al-Jabbār b. 'Abbās	Kufa	5	fihi ḍaf	LBB	LBB ^a
2	Abū Bakr al-Nahshalī	Kufa	6	Special ^b	thiqa	thiqa
3	Abū Janāb al-Kalbī	Kufa	5	ḍaʻīf	LBB	yudallis, lahu manākīr'
4	Bukayr b. 'Āmir	Kufa	5	thiqa-inshā'a llāh	ḍa ^c īf, tarakahu ^d	LBDh in hadīth, LBQ

Table 7.8 (cont.)

	. ,					
	Name	City	Ţ	Ibn Sa'd	Ibn Maʻīn	Ibn Ḥanbal
5	al-Ḥārith al-A'war	Kufa	l	ḍa'īf	LBB	kadhdhā b°
6	Makhrama b. Bukayr	Medina	5	thiqa	da'īf, LBS	thiqa
7	al-Mubārak b. Fadāla	Basra	5	fihi ḍaʻf	thiqa	yudallis, ḍaʻīf
8	al-Nadr b. 'Arabī	Jazīra		da'īf	thiqa	LBB, thiga
9	Qābūs b. Abī	•			•	
	Zabyān	Kufa	4	fihi da'f	thiqa	LBDh, da'īf
10	Sa'īd b. Sinān	Rayy		sayyi' l-khuluq	thiqa	LBQ
11	Salama b. Wardān	Medina	5	thabt	LBS	munkar, da'īf
12	Shahr b. Ḥawshab	Syria	2	ḍaʻīf	thiqa, thabt	tarakahu, da"afah
13	'Umar b. 'Alī al-Muqaddamī	Basra	6	thiqa	lam aktub 'anhu shay'an	yudallis, LBB
14	Usāma b. Zayd al-Laythī	Medina	5	yustaḍʻaf	thiqa	tarakahu, ^f lahu manākīr
15	Yazīd b. Abī Ziyād	Kufa	4	thiqa	LBDh	LBDh
16	al-Zanjī, Muslim b. Khālid	Mecca	5	Many errors ^g	thiqa, sālih	kadhā wa kadhā

[&]quot; Ibn Hanbal's precise grade is "I hope that he is not bad" arjū an lā yakūna bihi ba's; Mawsū'at aqwāl al-Imām Ahmad, II, 308.

Ibn Sa'd, Ibn Ma'īn, and Ibn Ḥanbal all agree upon the reliability (or lack thereof) of sixty-two men found in *al-Ṭabaqāt al-kabīr*, and forty of these evaluations consist of positive grades. The following table presents this group of transmitters:

Ibn Sa'd's thorough treatment of Medinan scholars was in no doubt due to the influence of his teacher al-Wāqidī, and it is not always clear whether the grade for a transmitter found in the Medinan tabaqāt is the opinion of Ibn Sa'd or his teacher. Note that al-Wāqidī played a minor role in the Kufan and Basran chapters; rather, natives of these cities, such as al-Fadl b. Dukayn, Wakī', and 'Affān b. Muslim, appear to have supplied Ibn Sa'd with much of his information about these transmitters.

Note that only three of the 78 men whom all three scholars graded lived prior to the fourth *tabaqa*.

⁷⁹ This is actually the responsibility of al-Dūrī; a cursory glance at al-Dārimī's Tārīkh and Kawsaj's recension preserved in al-Jarh wa l-ta'dīl appear to contain a far higher percentage of Ibn Ma'īn's positive grades than the former book.

⁸⁰ Abbreviations: LBS: laysa bi-shay'; LBB: laysa bihi ba's; LBDh: laysa bi-dhāk; LBQ: laysa bi-gawī; LBT: laysa bi-thiqa; LHBS: laysa hadīthuhu bi-shay'.

^b Ibn Sa'd's grade is "some people consider him to be weak" minhum man yastad'ifuhu; TK 2001, VIII, 499. He is also identified as a Murji'ī, 'ābid, and nāsik who had "some" hadīth.

Ibn Hanbal seems to want to have it both ways, as he also evaluated Abū Janab as thiqa; Mawsū'at aqual al-Imām Ahmad, IV, 112.

d Ibn Ma'in reports that this was the opinion of Ḥass b. Ghiyāth; Ibn Ma'īn obtained this information from Yaḥyā l-Qaṭṭān; al-Dūrī, Tānkh, II, 231.

Ibn Hanbal attributed this opinion to al-Sha'bī; Mawsū'at aqwāl al-Imām Ahmad, I, 213-4.

¹ Ibn Ḥanbal reports that this was the opinion of Yaḥyā l-Qaṭṭān; Mawsū'at aqwāl al-Imām Ahmad, I, 77-8.

^{*} Ibn Sa'd's exact words are: wa kāna kathīra l-ḥadīthi kathīra l-ghalaṭi wa l-khaṭa'i fī hadīthihi wa kāna fī badanihi ni'ma l-rajulu wa lakinnahu kāna yaghlatu; TK 2001, VIII, 60-1.

Table 7.9: Ibn Sa'd, Ibn Ma'īn, and Ibn Ḥanbal: Consensus⁸¹

	Name	City	Ţ	Ibn Sa'd	Ibn Ma'īn	Ibn Ḥanbal
1	Abān b. Abī 'Avyāsh	Basra	4	matrūk	matrūk	matrūk
2	'Abbād b. Mansūr	Вазга	4	<u>d</u> a'īf	LBS, LBQ	Special ^a
3	'Abd al-'Azīz b. Abān	Kufa	8	Special ^b	LBS	tarakahu
4	ʻAbd al-Ḥamīd b. Jaʻfar	Medina	5	thiqa	thiqa, LBB	thiqa thiqa, LBB
5	'Abd al-Raḥmān b. Isḥāq	Kufa	5	ḍ aʻ ̄̄̄f	ḍa ʻ if	matrūk, lahu manākīr, LBDh
6	'Abd al-Raḥmān b. Zayd b. Aslam	Medina	6	ḍa'īf jiddan	LHBS	yuda"ifuhu
7	'Abd al-Wahhāb b. Mujāhid	Mecca	4	ḍa ^c īf	ḍaʿīf	LBS, ḍaʿīf
8	'Abdullāh b. Sa'īd	Medina	5	thiqa	thiqa	thiqa, Shaykh
9	'Ā'idh b. Ḥabīb	Kufa	7	thiqa-inshā'a llāh	thiqa	LBB
10	'Alī b. Ghurāb	Kufa	7	şadūq	thiqa	şadūq
11	'Alī b. Hāshim b. al-Barīd	Kufa	7	şad ü q	thiqa	LBB
12	'Amr b. Marzūq al-Bāhilī	Basra	4	thiqa	LBB	ṣāḥib khayr
13	'Amr b. al-Muhājir	Syria	4	thiqa	thiqa	thiqa
l 4	'Amr b. 'Ubayd	Basra	4	LBS	LBS	kadhaba, tarakahu
15	Asad b. ʿA̞mr al-Bajalī	Baghdad	na	thiqa-inshā'a llāh	thiqa, LBB	şadūq
16	Ashʻath b. Sawwār	Kufa	5	ḍa ^c īf	<i>ḍa</i> ʿīf	ḍaʻīf
17	ʻĀṣim b. ʻUbayd Allāh	Medina	4	lā yuḥtajju bihi	ḍaʻīf, lā yuḥtajju bihi	yattaqūn ḥadīthahu ^c
18	al-Awzā'ī	'Awāṣim		thiqa-ḥujja	thiqa	thiqa
19	'Awf b. Abī Jamīla	Basra	4	thiqa	thiqa	thiqa, sāliḥ
20	Dāwūd b. Abī Hind	Basra	4	thiqa	thiqa	thiqa thiqa
21	Fițr b. Khalīfa	Kufa	5	thiqa-inshā'a llāh	thiqa	thiqa, sālih, kayyis
22	Ghālib b Ubayd Allāh	Jazīra		ḍa ^c īf	ḍa ^c īf	taraktuhu ^d

⁸¹ Abbreviations: LBS: laysa bi-shay'; LBB: laysa bihi ba's; LBDh: laysa bi-dhāk; LBQ: laysa bi-qawī; LBT: laysa bi-thiqa; LHBS: laysa hadīthuhu bi-shay'. References can be found in Appendix A of my doctoral dissertation "The Arts of Hadīth Compilation and Criticism: A Study of the Emergence of Sunnī Islam in the third/ninth century" (University of Chicago, 2002).

Table 7.9 (cont.)

	Name	City	Ţ	Ibn Sa'd	Ibn Ma'īn	Ibn Ḥanbal
23	Ḥabīb b. Abī 'Amra al-Ḥimānī	Kufa	4	thiqa	thiqa	thiqa, Shaykl
24	al-Ḥasan b. Dīnār	Basra	5	ḍaʿīf	LBS	taraka hadīthahu ^c
25	Isḥāq b. Yaḥyā	Medina	5	yustaḍʻaf	Да'īf, LBS	Shaykh, matrūk
26	Jābir b. Yazīd al-Ju'fī	Kufa	5	ḍaʿīf jiddan	LBS, kadhdhā b	tarakahu ^f
27	Ja'far b. Burqān	Jazīra	na	thiqa-ṣadūq	rajul sidq	LBB
28	Jarīr b. Hāzim	Basra	5	thiga	thiga	thiqa
29	Kahmas b. al-Hasan	Basra	4	thiqa	thiqa	thiqa thiqa
30	Khārija b. Muṣʿab	Khurāsān	na	tarakahu	LBS, LBT	Special ^g
31	Mahdî b. Maymūn	Basra	5	thiqa	thiqa	thiga thiga
32	Mālik b. Anas	Medina	6	thiqa-ḥujja	thiqa	hāfiz
33	al-Masʻūdī, ʻAbd al-Raḥmān ^h	Kufa	5	thiqa	thiqa	jayyid
34	Mindal b. 'Alī	Medina	6	fîh da'f	turika	<i>ḍa</i> ʻīf
35	Muḥammad b. Abī Yaḥyā	Medina	5	thiqa	thiqa	thiqa
36	Muḥammad b. 'Ajlān	Medina	5	thiqa	thiqa	thiqa, mudṭar
37	Muḥammad b. al-Fadl	Khurāsān	na	matrūk	LBS, ḍaʿīf	LBS
38	Muḥammad b. Hasan	Wāsiṭ	na	thiqa	thiqa	LBB
39	Muḥammad b. Sālim	Kufa	5	ḍaʻīf	ḍa [‹] īf	matrūk
40	Muḥammad b. Yazīd	Wāsiṭ	na	thiqa	thiqa	LBB
41	Mūsā b. 'Ugba	Medina	5	thiqa	thiqa	thiqa
42	Ṣadaqa b. Khālid	Syria	5	thiga	thiqa	thiga thiga
43	Saʻīd b. Muḥammad	Kufa	7	ḍa ^c īf	LBS	ḍaʿfun ʻindahuʻ
44	Sa'īd b. Zayd	Basra	6	thiqa	thiga	LBB
45	Salama b. Ṣāliḥ al-Ju'fī	Kufa	6	ḍa"fahu l- n ās	LBS, LBT	LBS
46	Salm b. Sālim al-Balkhî	Khurāsān	na	ḍaʿīf	LBS	LBDh
47	Shu'ba b. al-Ḥajjāj	Basra	5	thiqa-hujja	thiqa ^j	hāfiz
48	Sufyān al-Thawrī	Kufa	6	thiqa-ḥujja	thiqa, Imām	ḥāfiz
49	Țalḥa b. 'Amr	Mecca	4	ḍaʿīf jiddan	LBS, ḍaʿīf	matrūk, lā shay'
50	Ţalḥa b. Yaḥyā	Kufa	5	thiqa	thiqa	şālih
51	Thawr b. Yazīd	Syria	5	thiga	thiga	thiga
		,				

Table 7.9 (cont.)

	Name	City	Ţ	Ibn Sa'd	Ibn Ma'īn	Ibn Ḥanbal
52	ʻUbayda b. Muʻattib	Kufa	4	ḍa'īf jiddan	LBS	fihi ḍaʿf, tarakahu ^k
5 3	'Umar b. Muḥammad b. Zavd	Medina	5	thiqa	ṣā liḥ	thiqa, LBB, Shaykh
54	'Umar b. Qays Sandal	Месса	3	ḍaʻīf	ḍa ^c īf	laysa yusāwī ḥadīthuhu shay³an
55	Umayy b. Rabī'a	Kufa	5	thiqa	thiqa	thiqa, Shaykh
56	'Uthmān al-Battī	Basra	4	thiga	thiqa	thiqa, LBB
57	'Uyayna b. 'Abd al-Rahmān	Basra	4	thiqa-inshā'a llāh	LBB	LBB, ṣāliḥ
58	Wuhayb b. Khālid	Basra	6	thiga-huna	thabt	LBB
59	Yaḥyā b. Zakariyyā	Kufa	7	thiqa-inshā'a llāh	kayyis	thiqa
60	Yazīd b. Ḥāzim	Basra	4	thiqa-inshā'a llāh	thiqa	thiqa
61	Yazīd b. Yazīd	Syria	5	thiqa-inshā'a llāh	thiqa	ṣāliḥ
62	Zuhayr b. Muʻāwiya	Kufa	6	thiqa-thabt	thabt	<u>ķāfi</u> z

^a Ibn Ḥanbal reports that Mu'ādh b. Mu'ādh "did not like his transmission;" Mawsū'at aquāl al-Imām Aḥmad, II, 221.

This group of hadith-transmitters, for whose quality there is consensus among Ibn Sa'd, Ibn Ma'īn, and Ibn Hanbal, is a mixture of familiar and new names. Nearly three-quarters of the men hail from Kufa (18 men), Basra (16), and Medina (12), while the remaining sixteen are natives of Syria (4), Khurāsān (3), Mecca (3), al-Jazīra (2), Wāsit (2), Baghdād (1), and al-'Awāsim (1). A particularly striking finding is that all three of the Khurasanis and all three of the Meccans are weak transmitters. 82 More than half of the transmitters lived in the fourth and fifth tabaqat, which corresponds roughly to the first half of the second/eighth century, and particular attention is received by the fifth tabaga of Kufans.83 Seven of Ibn Sa'd's least favorite transmitters received negative grades from both Ibn Ma'īn and Ibn Hanbal,84 while only five of his favorite ones received positive grades from both of these men.85 In fact, the paucity of grades for Ibn Sa'd's favorite men from Ibn Ma'in and Ibn Hanbal supports my assertion that these latter two critics did not trouble themselves to affirm the reliability of master scholars like Ayyūb al-Sakhtiyānī, al-Zuhrī, and Manṣūr b. al-Mu'tamir, and, instead, chose to devote their energies towards the elucidation of the best pupils of these illustrious men. In fact, Ibn Sa'd's practice of grading "obviously" reliable hadith-transmitters among the tābi'ūn seems to have been idiosyncratic in his day and was declared irrelevant by Ibn Abī Hātim in his Taqdima.86

b Ibn Sa'd reports that "he had much material from Sufyān [al-Thawrī] and then he got confused afterwards, and so the people abstained from his hadīth" wa kāna kathīra lriwāyati 'an Sufyān, 'thumma khallata ba'da dhālika fa-amsakū 'an hadīthihi, TK 2001, VIII, 528.

Ibn Hanbal obtained this opinion from Ibn 'Uyayna; Mawsū'at aqwāl al-Imām Aḥmad, Il. 204-5.

d Ibn Ḥanbal reports that this was the opinion of Wakī'; Mawsū'at aqwāl al-Imām Ahmad, III, 141-2.

^r Ibn Ḥanbal obtained this opinion from Ibn Mubārak; Mawsū'at aqwāl al-Imām Aḥmad, 1. 252-3.

Ibn Ḥanbal reports that this was the opinion of Yaḥyā al-Qaṭṭān, Ibn Mahdī, and Sufyān al-Thawrī (at the end of his life); Mawsū'at aqwāl al-Imām Aḥmad, I, 185-7.

^k 'Abdullāh reports that his father forbade him to write any of Khārija's hadīth (nahānī an aktuba 'anhu shay'an); Mawsū'at aqwāl al-Imām Ahmad, 1, 326-7.

h Ibn Sa'd, Ibn Ma'īn and Ibn Ḥanbal all mention that al-Mas'ūdī became confused yaghlat/ikhtalata) at the end of his life; TK 2001, VIII, 486, al-Dūrī, Tārīkh, I, 245 and Mawsū'at agwāl al-Imām Ahmad, II, 330-1.

Ibn Hanbal attributed this grade to Yaḥyā l-Qaṭṭān; Mawsū'at aqwāl al-Imām Aḥmad, II 46

Ibn Ma'ın attributed this grade to Yaḥyā l-Qaṭṭān; al-Dūrī, Tārīkh, II, 164.

k Ibn Hanbal reports that this was the opinion of Ibn Mubārak; Mawsū'at aqwāl al-Imām Ahmad, II, 418.

⁸² The Khurāsānīs are Khārija b. Muṣʿab, Muḥammad b. Faḍl, and Salm b. Sālim al-Balkhī; the Meccans are ʿAbd al-Wahhāb b. Mujāhid, Ṭalḥa b. ʿAmr, and ʿUmar b. Oays Sandal.

⁸³ Eight men of the fifth *tabaga* of Kufans are found in this group, and only half of them were considered reliable.

⁸⁴ The seven men are the Kufans Jābir al-Ju'fī and 'Ubayda b. Mu'attib; the Basrans Abān b. Abī 'Ayyāsh and 'Amr b. 'Ubayd (a founder of the Mu'tazila); the Medinan 'Abd al-Raḥmān b. Zayd; the Meccan Ṭalḥa b. 'Amr; and the Khurāsānī Muḥammad b. Faḍl.

⁸⁵ These five men are al-Awzā'ī, Mālik, Shu'ba, Sufyān al-Thawrī, and Zuhayr b. Mu'āwiya.

Bi Ibn Abī Ḥātim states explicitly that it is unnecessary for hadīth-transmitter critics to evaluate the tābi tīn, although he does acknowledge that mention will be made of those who engaged in tadlīs in the appropriate places in al-Jarh wa l-ta'dīl (falam yakun li-ishtighālinā bi-l-tamyīzi baynahum... lā najidu minhum illā imāman mubarrizan muqaddaman fī l-fadli wa l-'ilmi... illā mā kāna mimnan alhaqa nafsahu bi-him wa dal-lasahā baynahum mimman laysa yalhaquhum...); Taqdima, 9.

It is possible to acquire a far larger body of comparative grades than the above sample if the analysis is limited to just two of these three critics at a time. I mentioned earlier that Ibn Ma'īn graded 203 of Ibn Sa'd's 1105 evaluated men, and it is striking that there is agreement between the two critics in 177 cases (87%) and disagreement in only 26 of them (13%). The following table depicts the geographical and generational distribution of the men upon whom Ibn Sa'd and Ibn Ma'īn were in harmony over their absolute reliability or lack thereof:87

Table 7.10: Ibn Sa'd and Ibn Ma'īn: Similar grades

City	Ţ1	Ţ 2	Ţ 3	Ţ 4	Ţ 5	Ţ6	Ţ 7	Ţ 8	Total
Kufa	1		1	5	11	15	12	4	49
Medina	1	4	1	7	19	10	4		47
Basra			2	14	10	5	l		32
Mecca			4	4	2				10
Khurāsān									10
Syria									7
Baghdad									6
Jazīra									4
Wāsiṭ									4
Egypt									3
Rayy	Ļ								2
Madā'in									2
'Awāṣim									1
Total									177

Once again, there are few surprises to be found in this data. The majority of graded-men are found in the three primary cities of hadith scholarship, Kufa, Medina, and Basra, and in the fourth to seventh tabaqāt. Two-thirds of these men (117) are considered reliable, and in four cases Ibn Ma'īn actually evaluates a transmitter with a higher grade than Ibn Sa'd. 88 Several prominent scholars are found among

the sixty men whom both Ibn Sa'd and Ibn Ma'īn declared to be weak, including Abū Ma'shar of sīra fame, ⁸⁹ the Egyptian hadīth-transmitter Ibn Lahī'a (d. 174/790), ⁹⁰ the Qurānic exegete Muqātil b. Sulaymān, ⁹¹ and the akhbārī Muḥammad b. al-Sā'ib al-Kalbī. ⁹² Six of the men evaluated by Ibn Sa'd as da'īf jiddan were also given harsh grades by Ibn Ma'īn, ⁹³ and five of Ibn Ma'īn's group of liars (kadhdhāb) received negative marks from Ibn Sa'd. ⁹⁴ While a significant percentage of these weak transmitters are Kufans (30%), it is important to observe that Medinans (25%), Basrans (17%) and Khurāsānīs (10%) constitute over half of these unreliable men, and that over a quarter of the reliable transmitters are Kufans as well. ⁹⁵

A comparison between the grades of Ibn Sa'd and Ibn Ḥanbal yields a net sample of 266 hadīth-transmitters. Ibn Sa'd and Ibn Ḥanbal agreed over the quality of 227 of these men (85%) and disagreed over only 39 of them (15%). The following table displays the geographical and generational locations of the 227 transmitters for whom their exists a qualitative consensus between Ibn Sa'd and Ibn Ḥanbal:96

⁸⁷ For details and references, see Lucas, "The Arts of *Ḥadīth* Compilation and Criticism: A Study of the Emergence of Sunnī Islam in the third/ninth century," Appendix B.

¹⁸⁸ The following men are evaluated as sadūq by Ibn Sa'd and thiga by Ibn Ma'īn:

Abū Isrā'īl Ismā'īl b. Abī Ishāq al-Mulā'ī, the famous Qur'ān reciter Hamza b. 'Umāra al-Zayyāt, 'Alī b. Ghurāb al-Fazārī, and 'Alī b. Hāshim; TK 2001, VIII, 501, 507, 513. All four of these men are Kufans of the sixth and seventh tabagāt.

⁸⁹ See TK 2001, VII, 597 and al-Dūrī, Tāπkh, I, 118. Note that two other composers of biographies of the Prophet, Ibn Isḥāq and Mūsā b. 'Uqba, were considered by both Ibn Sa'd and Ibn Ma'īn to be reliable, although Ibn Ma'īn declared that Ibn Isḥāq was 'not strong' and a Qadarī in a second report in al-Dūrī's Tārīkh; ibid., I, 181.

⁹⁰ TK 2001, IX, 524 and al-Dūrī, Tārīkh, II, 369. Ibn Sa'd remarks that the Egyptians did not consider Ibn Lahī'a to be weak.

TK 2001, IX, 377 and al-Dūrī, *Tārīkh*, II, 287.

⁹² TK 2001, VIII, 478-9 and al-Dūrī, Tārīkh, I, 206.

⁹³ Three of these men, 'Abd al-Raḥmān b. Zayd, Talḥa b. 'Amr, and 'Ubayda b. Mu'attib, were also evaluated as weak by Ibn Hanbal; the remaining three are the Kufans 'Amr b. Shimr al-Ju'fī, Muḥammad al-Kalbī, and Yaḥyā b. Salama.

⁹⁴ These five men are 'Abd al-Ḥakīm b. Manṣūr of Wāsit, Abū Jābir al-Bayyādī of Medina, the qāḍī Abū l-Bakhtarī of Baghdad, our Kufan friend Jābir al-Ju'fī, and Yūsuf b. Khālid of Basra. Note that Yūsuf is one of the few men whom Ibn Ma'in declared to be a heretic (zindīq); al-Dūrī, Tārīkh, II, 107.

⁹⁵ 26% of the reliable men are Kufans; 19% are Basrans, and 27% are Medinans. ⁹⁶ For details and references, see Lucas, "The Arts of *Hadīth* Compilation and Criticism: A Study of the Emergence of Sunnī Islam in the third/ninth century," Appendix C.

Table 7.11: Ibn Sa'd and Ibn Hanbal: Similar evaluations

City	Ţ 1	Ţ 2	Ţ 3 ·	Ţ 4	Ţ 5	Ţ 6	Ţ 7	Ţ8	Total
Kufa	2	2	2	18	11	8	12	2	57
Basra		1	8	21	12	7	5		54
Medina	1	1	2	14	19	5	1		43
Mecca		l	6	9	1				17
Baghdad									16
Syria		l	2	1	5	1			10
Wāsit									9
Egypt			2	4	1				7
Jazīra									6
Khurāsān									3
Ayla									2
ʻÁwāṣim									2
Rayy									1
Total									227

This table indicates that although Ibn Ḥanbal was more interested in first/seventh century hadīth-transmitters than Ibn Ma'īn, he remained concerned primarily with transmitters of the second/eighth century. Three quarters of these men were held in high esteem by both Ibn Sa'd and Ibn Ḥanbal, and it is noteworthy that all but one of the twenty-five men I identified as Ibn Ḥanbal's favorite transmitters received a minimal grade of thiqa from Ibn Sa'd. Wenty-five men whom Ibn Sa'd evaluated with the grades thiqa-hujja or thiqa-thabt, including Abū l-Walīd al-Ṭayālisī, Manṣūr b. Zādhān, 'Ubayd Allāh b. 'Umar b. Ḥafṣ, and Yaḥyā b. Sa'īd al-Anṣārī, received positive grades from Ibn Ḥanbal, although occasionally of a less enthusiastic pitch than those articulated by Ibn Sa'd. Several of the prominent transmitters whom both Ibn Sa'd and Ibn Ḥanbal evaluated as weak

are the Medinan 'Abdullāh b. 'Umar b. Ḥafṣ, 100 the Kufan tābi'ī al-Ḥārith al-A'war, 101 the pupil of al-Zuhrī, Yūnus b. Yazīd al-Aylī, 102 and the Meccan Muslim b. Khālid al-Zanjī. 103 Kufans are prominent, once again, among both the reliable (23%) as well as the unreliable transmitters (31%) for whom Ibn Sa'd and Ibn Ḥanbal were in agreement, although Basra surpassed Kufa with 25% of the reliable men and only 20% of the unreliable ones.

This study demonstrates the high degree of consensus between three contemporary hadith-transmitter critics of the first half of the third/ninth century. Despite my initial disappointment over the embarrassingly small number of men who received grades in all three of the sources that I analyzed, it was possible to cull a more substantial sample of 203 and 266 transmitters by restricting the comparison to Ibn Sa'd and Ibn Ma'īn, and Ibn Sa'd and Ibn Hanbal, respectively. I found a consistently high degree of consensus in all three of the comparisons between the opinions of these critics, and it is unlikely that my findings would change significantly were I to include additional reports from other sources. I have argued that this consensus had a deep impact on the articulation of Sunnī Islam because it drew a border between those first and second century men whose transmissions were acceptable to Sunnī hadīth compilers and those who were not, thus limiting the massive corpus of prophetic teachings that could find its way into the canonical works of Sunnī Islam. While the hadīth-transmitter critics appear to have designated hundreds, if not thousands, of their predecessors in the camp of reliable men, a significant body of men was deemed unreliable by the critics of the generation immediately preceding the compilation of the Saḥīḥs of al-Bukhārī and Muslim. Indeed, it is difficult to imagine how these two quintessential Sunnī books could have been compiled had it not been for the willingness of scholars such as Ibn Sa'd, Ibn Ma'īn, and Ibn Hanbal to pursue and expand rigorously the discipline of *hadīth*-transmitter criticism to a level that far outstripped the efforts of their teachers.

⁹⁷ Note that 32 of the men (14%) whom Ibn Hanbal evaluated lived prior to the fourth *tabaqa*, whereas Ibn Ma'īn graded only 14 men (8%) during this time.

⁹⁸ The one exception, the Egyptian Mūsā b. 'Ulayy, was graded thiqa-in shā'a llāh by Ibn Sa'd and thiqa thiqa, Shaykh by Ibn Hanbal; ȚK 2001, IX, 552 and Mawsū'at aqwāl al-Imām Aḥmad, III, 414.

Note, for example, that Ibn Hanbal declared that Abū l-Walid was not thabt, but rather mutqin only in what he transmitted from Shu'ba; Mawsū'at aqwāl al-Imām Aḥmad, IV, 41–2. Another example is Wuhayb b. Khālid, who was graded thiqa-hujja by Ibn Sa'd but a mere LBB by Ibn Hanbal; TK 2001, IX, 288 and Mawsū'at aqwāl al-Imām Aḥmad, IV, 103.

TK 2001, VII, 532 and Mawsū'at aqwāl al-Imām Ahmad, II, 268-9.

¹⁰¹ TK 2001, VIII, 288-9 and Mawsū'at aqwāl al-Imām Ahmad, I, 213-4.

 ¹⁰² TK 2001, IX, 529 and Mawsū'at aqwāl al-Imām Ahmad, IV, 180-2.
 103 TK 2001, VIII, 60-1 and Mawsū'at aqwāl al-Imām Ahmad, III, 347-8.

VII.6 Sectarian labels: Do they matter?

Did sectarian labels play a significant role in the discipline of hadīth-transmitter criticism? Were Ibn Sa'd, Ibn Ma'īn, and Ibn Ḥanbal more inclined to grade first and second century advocates of the Qadariyya or Murji'a positions on human agency and the nature of faith as trustworthy, given that these positions were found to be repugnant by many of their contemporaries? Or were these labels unrelated to an individual's skill in hadīth-transmission? The following discussion demonstrates the lack of relationship between quality transmission and sectarian affiliation in the cases of the adherents of the Qadariyya, Murji'a, and tashayyu' found in al-Tabaqāt al-kabīr, and closes with a brief discussion of the terms sāḥib ḥadīth and sāḥib sunna.¹⁰⁴

Slightly over twenty transmitters found in al-Tabaqāt al-kabīr are identified as adherents to Qadar, a belief associated with the championing of human freedom and responsibility for one's bad acts. ¹⁰⁵ This position is associated often with a famous epistle attributed to al-Ḥasan al-Baṣrī, ¹⁰⁶ although none of our three critics suggests that al-Ḥasan was related to the Qadariyya. Basrans of later generations do make a strong showing in this group, including the master hadīth-transmitters Qatāda b. Di'āma and Hishām al-Dastawā'ī, ¹⁰⁷ as well

as the unreliable Yazīd b. Abān al-Raqāshī, 'Abbād b. Manṣūr, 'Abd al-A'lā al-Qurashī, and 'Abbād b. Ṣuhayb.¹⁰⁸ The famous Qur'ānic exegete Ibn Abī Najīḥ, along with his companions Sayf b. Sulaymān and Zakariyā b. Isḥāq, formed a Qadarī enclave of reliable hadīth-transmitters in Mecca,¹⁰⁹ while only one of the five Medinan Qadarīs appears to have been an unreliable transmitter.¹¹⁰ Two of the Syrian Qadarīs were also reliable transmitters,¹¹¹ although Ibn Sa'd grades both Makḥūl al-Shāmī and al-Wadīn b. 'Aṭā' as da'īf.¹¹² Far from being stigmatized, the majority of hadīth-transmitters associated with the Qadarī position were held by Ibn Sa'd, Ibn Ma'īn, and Ibn Ḥanbal in high esteem.

The seventeen Murji'a found in al-Ṭabaqāt al-kabīr are the most geographically diverse lot of the three sectarian groups under investigation. The Kufan Murji'a range from the major hadīth scholars Mis'ar b. Kidām and Abū Mu'āwiya al-Parīr, to the famous, albeit unreliable, jurist Ḥammād b. Abī Sulaymān. Two of the three

¹⁰⁴ Note that five 'Uthmānīs, three Khawārij, and the Mu'tazilī 'Amr b. 'Ubayd are found in al-Tabaqāt al-kabīr as well. All five of the 'Uthmānīs—'Abdullāh b. Shaqīq al-'Uqaylī, Ibn 'Awn, Ḥammād b. Zayd, Yazīd b. Zuray', Bishr b. al-Mufaḍḍal—were excellent hadīth scholars and hailed from Basra; TK 2001, IX, 125, 261, 287, 290, 291. Two of the Khawārij (Ṣadaqa b. Mūsā and Jābir b. Zayd Abū l-Sha'thā') were considered reliable. The unreliable Khārijī was the famous Berber pupil of Ibn 'Abbās, 'Ikrima; while Ibn Sa'd evaluated him as 'not an authority' (ibid., VII, 282), al-Bukhārī did include material from him in his Ṣahīt. Note also that the three Qadarīs, two Murji'īs, two Shī'īs, one Khārijī and one 'Uthmānī found only in all-Dūrī's Tārīkh do not appear to affect my findings concerning the lack of relationship between sound transmitters and their sectarian affiliations; the fact that the three Jahmīs and three Rāfiḍīs were detested by Ibn Ma'īn, while appearing to contradict my thesis, merely shows that the tolerance of the Sunnī hadīth critics of the third/ninth century extended to all but the most extreme Islamic beliefs in circulation.

¹⁰⁵ Al-Dhahabī cites Qatāda's purported definition of Qadar as "everything is by the power of God except acts of disobedience" (kullu shay'in bi-qadari llāhi illā l-ma'āsī): Tadhkira, I. 93.

¹⁰⁶ See van Ess, Theologie und Gesellschaft, II, 41-50.

¹⁰⁷ TK 2001, IX, 228, 279. Other reliable Basran Qadarīs include 'Aṭā' b. Abī Maymūn, 'Awf b. Abī Jamīla, and Ḥusayn b. Dhakwān al-Mu'allim; *ibid.*, IX, 244, 257, 270. Note that Ibn Ma'īn identified 'Awf and Ḥusayn as Qadarīs, while Ibn Sa'd did not; al-Dūrī, *Tārīkh*, II, 148, 208.

¹⁰⁸ TK 2001, IX, 244, 269, 291, 298. Ibn Ḥanbal identified 'Abbād b. Manṣūr and Abd al-A'lā as a Qadarīs, while Ibn Sa'd did not; *Mawsū'at aqwāl al-Imām Aḥmad*, II, 221, 306.

¹⁰⁹ TK 2001, VIII, 44, 55.

The weak transmitter is Ibrāhīm b. Muḥammad al-Aslamī; TK 2001, VII, 603; and Mawsū'at aqwāl al-Imām Aḥmad, I, 38. The reliable Qadarīs are 'Abdullāh b. Abī Labīd, 'Abd al-Hamīd b. Ja'far, Ibn Isḥāq, and Ibn Abī Dhi'b (Muḥammad b. 'Abd al-Raḥmān); TK 2001, VII, 514, 552, 558. Ibn Ma'īn called 'Abd al-Hamīd and Ibn Ishāq Qadarīs, but Ibn Sa'd did not; al-Dūrī, Tārīkh, I, 157, 181.

TK 2001, IX, 456, 470. Thawr b. Yazīd al-Kalā'ī and the Damascene qādī Yahyā b. Ḥamza; ŢK 2001, IX 471, 473. Only Ibn Ma'īn identified Yahyā as a Qadarī; al-Dūrī, Tārīkh, II, 341. The latter was not given a traditional grade by Ibn Sa'd or in the 'Ilal, although Ibn Ḥanbal's opinion in Ibn Abī Ḥātim's al-Jarh wa l-ta'dīl is laysa bihi ba's; Mawsū'at aqwāl al-Imām Aḥmad, IV, 112.

¹¹² Note that Ibn Ḥanbal graded al-Waḍīn as "not bad" and thiqa; Mawsū'at aqwāl al-Imām Aḥmad, IV, 81. Another Syrian Qadarī, Sa'īd b. Bashīr al-Azdī, lacks a formal grade in our three primary sources but is evaluated by Ibn Ḥanbal as laysa bi-shay' in the recension of Ibn Ḥānī; ibid., II. 27.

Thirteen of these men were identified by Ibn Sa'd as Murji'a; Ibn Hanbal identified an additional four men who received grades from Ibn Sa'd, but whom the latter did not designate with this label. Note that Ibn Sa'd distinguished al-Hasan b. Muhammad b. al-Hanafiyya as the originator of the initial position of iŋā', namely that the first two Caliphs were excellent but that one should avoid judgment upon the merits of 'Uthmān and 'Alī; TK 2001, VII, 322.

Kufan Murji'a include Qays b. Muslim al-Jadalī, Mūsā b. Abī Kathīr, and 'Umar b. Dharr; TK 2001, VIII, 434, 458, 482. A fourth Murji'ī, Abū Bakr al-Nahshalī, was evaluated as thiqa by Ibn Ma'īn and Ibn Ḥanbal, but Ibn Sa'd merely remarks that "some folk declare him weak;" TK 2001, VIII, 499; al-Dūrī, Tārīkh, I, 246; Mawsū'at aqwāl al-Imām Aḥmad, IV, 197.

Khurāsānī Murji'a were clearly unreliable,¹¹⁵ and a father-son pair of Meccan Murji'a receive lackluster grades.¹¹⁶ The remaining Murji'a were isolated individuals in five Iraqi cities, and only Abū Khālid al-Dālānī of Wāsiṭ was considered an unreliable transmitter among them.¹¹⁷ As with the previous case, the Sunnī hadīth-transmitter critics of the third/ninth century clearly did not consider a scholar's affinity for Murji'ī beliefs as a barrier for inclusion among the trustworthy disseminators of prophetic material.

The general acceptance by Sunnī scholars of adherents to tashayyu', the belief that 'Alī was superior to 'Uthmān but inferior to Abū Bakr and 'Umar, as reliable hadīth-transmitters is manifest in the opinions of Ibn Sa'd, Ibn Ma'īn, and Ibn Ḥanbal. 118 Only a third of the eighteen members of this group were graded as weak by one or more of our critics. Two of these men, Abū 'Abdullāh al-Jadalī and 'Alī b. Qādim, were reported to have practiced "severe" (shadīd) tashayyu', 119 while 'Amr b. Abī l-Miqdam al-'Ijlī and Khālid b. Makhlad were described as possessing "excessive" (mufrit) tashayyu'. 120 Both Ibn Sa'd and Ibn Ma'īn declare Fiṭr b. Khalīfa, Ḥasan b. Ḥayy, Abū Ghassān Mālik b. Ismā'īl, 'Awf b. Abī Jamīla, Ja'far b. Sulaymān, and 'Abbād b. al-'Awwām, to be trustworthy, despite their affinities for tashayyu'. 121 Six additional advocates of tashayyu' were awarded pos-

itive grades by Ibn Sa'd, and it is interesting that three of them were found among the first tabaqa of tābi'ūn: 'Abdullāh b. Shaddād b. Usāma of Medina, 'Abdullāh b. Shaddād b. al-Hādī of Kufa, and Abū l-Aswad al-Du'alī of Basra. 122 While the numbers of adherents to tashayyu' has been inflated slightly due to Ibn Sa'd's inclusion of five first-generation pro-'Alī tābi'ūn in al-Tabaqāt al-kabīr, the pattern of independence between sectarian affiliation and reliable hadīth transmission is affirmed by the group that most closely approached the position of the Zaydiyya and Imāmiyya with regard to the merits of 'Alī b. Abī Ṭālib.

The final sectarian labels of interest to this project are the intriguing sāḥib ḥadīth and sāḥib sunna. As with the three previous labels, none of our three critics provides any indication as to the exact meaning of these two expressions. 123 Thirty-nine men found in al-Tabaqāt al-kabīr receive one of these designations from either Ibn Sa'd or Ibn Ḥanbal in the 'Ilal, and virtually all of them lived in Baghdad, Kufa, and Basra. 124 Ibrāhīm b. Abī l-Layth of Baghdad and Mindal b. 'Alī of Kufa stand out as the only two aṣḥāb ḥadīth who received negative qualitative grades in this entire lot. 125 Ibn Ḥanbal identifies explicitly the three aṣḥāb al-ḥadīth of Baghdad in

Both Abū Muṭīʿ al-Ḥakam b. ʿAbdullāh al-Balkhī and Salm b. Sālim al-Balkhī were considered unreliable by Ibn Saʿd and Ibn Maʿīn in the first case, and all three critics in the latter; ṬK 2001, IX, 377, 378; al-Dūrī, Tārīkh, II, 273-4; Mawsūʿat aquāl al-Imām Aḥmad, II, 74. The third Khurāsānī Murjiʾī, Abū Isḥāq Ibrāhīm b. Sulaymān al-Zayyāt, is mentioned only by Ibn Saʿd, who did not give him a qualitative grade; ṬK 2001, IX, 383.

^{116 &#}x27;Abd al-'Azīz b. Abī Rawwād was "known for his piety" according to Ibn Sa'd, while his son, 'Abd al-Majīd b. 'Abd al-'Azīz, was considered da'f by Ibn Sa'd and thiqa by Ibn Ma'īn; ŢK 2001, VIII, 55, 62; al-Dūrī, Tārīkh, I, 51.

¹¹⁷ Ibn Sa'd graded Talq b. Habīb (Basra) as thiqa in shā'a llāh; Shabāba b. Sawwār (al-Madā'īn) as thiqa, sālih; al-Mu'allā b. Manṣūr al-Rāzī (Baghdad) as sadūq; and Sālim b. 'Ajlān (Jazīra) as thiqa; TK 2001, IX, 226, 322, 344, 486.

¹¹⁸ This finding is corroborated by the case of 'Abd al-Razzāq al-Ṣan'ānī, a major teacher of Ibn Hanbal, who was accused of tashayyu'; see Motzki, The Origins of Islamic Jurisprudence, 67–8.

¹¹⁹ TK 2001, VIII, 347, 528.

¹²⁰ TK 2001, VIII, 505, 530. The remaining two weak adherents to tashayyu are Hāni' b. Hāni' al-Hamdānī and Asbagh b. al-Nubāta; TK 2001, VIII, 342, 345. Note that all six of these men are Kufans, and that Abū Abdullāh and Hāni' were both first tabaga tābi'ān.

¹²¹ TK 2001, VIII, 484, 496, 528; IX, 257, 289, 332; al-Dūrī, *Tārīkh*, I, 246 (Fitr), 247 (Ḥasan), 248 ('Awf); II, 13 (Abū Ghassān), 104 (Ja'far), 164 ('Abbād).

¹²² ȚK 2001, VII, 64; VIII, 264; IX, 98. Note that Ibn Ḥanbal reports that the Kuſan 'Abdullāh b. Shaddād did not transmit anything from the Prophet; *Mawsūʿat aqwāl al-Imām Ahmad*, II, 255. The three remaining adherents of *tashayyu* are Yaḥyā b. al-Jazzār, Sālim b. Abī Ḥaſṣa, and 'Ubayd Allah b. Mūsā; ȚK 2001, VIII, 411, 454, 522.

¹²³ Al-Khallāl claims to quote Ibn Ḥanbal's opinion that ṣāḥib sunna refers to someone who says "Abū Bakr, 'Umar, 'Uthmān," which is the correct position, and then adds the name 'Alī; al-Khallāl, al-Sunna, I, 408. Juynboll is of the opinion that these two terms were not interchangeable, since a ṣāḥib al-sunna could be a weak ḥadīth-transmitter and a ṣāḥib al-ḥadīth could be an adherent to multiple religious innovations (bida'); Juynboll, "Sunna," EI2, XI, 880. While this position is not contradicted by my findings, what is perhaps of greater interest is the extraordinary infrequency with which Ibn Sa'd, Ibn Ma'īn, and Ibn Ḥanbal employed these two terms in their works.

¹²⁴ The only non-Iraqis are al-Nadr b. Shumayl of Khurāsān, Abū Isḥāq Ibrāhīm b. Muḥammad al-Fazārī of al-'Awāṣim, and Ja'far b. Rabī'a of Egypt; ȚK 2001, IX, 377, 494, 520. Note that none of these men hail from the Hijāz.

¹²⁵ Ibn Sa'd grades Ibrāhīm as yuḍa"af and Mindal as fihi daf; TK 2001, IX, 364; VIII, 502. Note that the latter is identified as being among ahl al-sunna instead of ṣāḥib sunna by Ibn Sa'd. Ibn Ma'īn states that Mindal was rejected due to his habit of hadīth fabrication, and Ibn Ḥanbal declares him to be da'īf; al-Dūrī, Tārīkh, I, 325; Mawsū'at aqwāl al-Imām Aḥmad, III, 396. The only other man who is identified as being from ahl al-Sunna is the Baghdādī Mardawayh al-Ṣā'igh ('Abd al-Ṣamad b. Yazīd); TK 2001, IX, 367.

his day as Abū Kāmil Muzaffar b. Mudrik, Abū Salama Mansūr b. Salama, and al-Haytham b. Jamīl, 126 and also applies this label to Ja'far b. Rabī'a of Egypt and the Basran Wuhayb b. Khālid. 127 Ibn Sa'd recognizes only Zā'ida b. Qudāma, Su'ayr b. al-Khims, 'Abdullāh b. Idrīs, Abū Usāma Ḥammād b. Usāma, Muḥammad b. 'Ubayd al-Tanāfisī, and Ahmad b. 'Abdullāh b. Yūnus, all of whom were Kufans of the sixth and seventh tabaqāt, as sāhib sunna wa jamā'a, the full title of the firga that is normally abbreviated as Sunnism. 128 In fact, the only Kufans and Basrans who lived in earlier tabaqāt than this group were 'Algama b. Qays, al-Mughīra b. Migsam al-Dabbī, Jarīr b. Hāzim, and the master critic Shu'ba. 129 The preponderance of sixth through eighth tabaqāt Kufans and Basrans who are identified as sāhib sunna, along with their dozen or so Baghdādī contemporaries, suggests strongly the Iraqī provenance of this term that was applied initially to hadith scholars who flourished during the second half of the second/eighth century.

Table 7.12: An overview of transmitters identified as sāhib sunna

	Name	City	Ţ	Ibn Sa'd	Ibn Ma'īn	Ibn Ḥanbal
1	'Abd al-Rahmān b.					
	'Abd al-Malik	Kufa	7	khayyir		
2	'Abdullāh b _i Idrīs b.					
	Yazīd [†]	Kufa	7	thiqa-hujja		
3	Abū Ishāq al-Fazārī	'Awāṣim	na	thiqa		
4	Abū l-Qāsim zawj bint					
	Abī Muslim	Baghdad	na	thiqaa		
5	Abū Ma'mar, Ismā'īl b.					
	Ibrāhīm	Baghdad	na	thìqa-thabt		
6	Abū Usāma Ḥammād					
	b. Usāma	Kufa	7	thiq a		
7	Aḥmad b. 'Abdullāh b.	Kufa	8	thiqa-sadūq		
	Yūnus					
8	'Alqama b ≟Q ays	Kufa	l	thiqa		

¹²⁶ Mawsū'at aqwāl al-Imām Ahmad, III, 375, 399; IV, 72.

Table 7.12 (cont.)

	Name	City	Ţ	Ibn Saʻd	Ibn Ma'īn	Ibn Ḥanbal
9	al-Ḥajjāj b. al-Minhal	Basra	7	thiqa		LBB
10	Ḥamza b. 'Umāra al-Zayyāt	Kufa	6	ṣadūq		
11	Ibrāhīm b. Abī l-Layth	Baghdad	na	yuḍa"af		
12	Ismāʾīl b. Ibrāhīm al-Turjumānī	Baghdad	na			LВВь
13	Jarīr b. Ḥāzim	Basra	5	thiqa		
14	Manşūr b. Bashīr	Baghdad	na	thiqa		
15	Mardawayh al-Ṣā'igh	Baghdad	na	thiga		
16	Mindal b. 'Alī	Kufa	6	fîhi da ^c f	turika	daʻīf
17	al-Muʻāfā b. 'Imrān	Jazīra	na	thiga		
18	al-Mughīra b. Miqsam	·		•		
	al-Dabbī	Kufa	4	thiqa		
19	Muhammad b. 'Ubayd			•		
	al-Tanāfisī	Kufa	7	thiga	khayyir	
20	Su'ayr b. al-Khims	Kufa	7	sharīf	22	
21	Wahb b. Jarīr b.			3		
	Hāzim	Basra	7	thiga		
22	Zāʾida b. Qudāma	Kufa	6	thiqa		ḥāfiz

a Ibn Sa'd says yaqūlu bi-sunna instead of sāḥib sunna.

VII.7 Conclusions

The story of hadīth-transmitter criticism, whose prepubescent stage was analyzed in the fourth chapter, has now reached its adulthood. The generation of Ibn Sa'd, Ibn Ma'īn, and Ibn Ḥanbal systematized this discipline, begun by Shu'ba, Mālik, and Yaḥyā l-Qaṭṭān, and applied it to an unprecedented number of men. The analysis of the grades used by these three scholars has uncovered several examples of individual terminology and personal styles of criticism. While the grades thiqa and da'īf enjoyed the widest currency, over a dozen terms were used by these three men to indicate different shades of reliability and delinquency with regard to hadīth transmission. It also became apparent, to my surprise, that Ibn Sa'd, Ibn Ma'īn, and Ibn Ḥanbal were interested in grading very different pools of men, and, as a consequence, their personal tastes limited the scope of the comparative qualitative analysis between these three critics. I salvaged my analysis through the adoption of bilateral, rather than

¹²⁷ Mawsū'at aqwāl al-Imām Ahmad, I, 198; IV, 103. Ibn Hanbal also called al-Fadl b. 'Anbasa of Wāṣit a ṣāḥib al-ḥadīth; ibid., III, 155.

¹²⁸ TK 2001, VIII, 499, 508, 511, 517, 520, 529.

¹²⁹ TK 2001, VIII, 207, 456; IX, 278, 280. 'Alqama was a first tabaqa Kufan and was identified as sāḥib sunna only by Ibn Ḥanbal; Mawsū'at aqwāl al-Imām Aḥmad, III, 29. Al-Mughīra was a fourth tabaqa Kufan; Jarīr and Shu'ba were fifth tabaqa Basrans.

b Ibn Hanbal actually quoted Ibn Ma'īn's position in this case; Mawsū'at aqwāl al-Imām Ahmad, I, 93.

trilateral, comparisons between these critics, and it uncovered more than an 85% consensus between Ibn Ma'īn and Ibn Sa'd, and between Ibn Ḥanbal and Ibn Sa'd. It is this consensus as to the identities of the most authoritative hadīth-transmiters of the first two centuries of Islam that must be considered as a fundamental pillar in the articulation of Sunnī Islam by the critical hadīth compilers of the third/ninth century.

CHAPTER EIGHT

THE SUNNĪ HISTORICAL VISION OF THE FIRST TWO CENTURIES OF *HADĪTH* TRANSMISSION

VIII.1

Behind all the myriad grades and details found in the works of Ibn Sa'd, Ibn Ma'īn, and Ibn Ḥanbal there exists a common historical vision of the first two centuries of hadīth transmission that is at the core of the Sunnī articulation of Islam. The task of this last chapter is to construct a coherent narrative that does justice to this key third/ninth century historiographical dimension of Sunnism that tends to be overlooked in the secondary literature. This narrative focuses on the primary actors of hadīth transmission and articulates the untold story of the fall of Medina as the undisputed capital of hadīth and the rise of Kufa and Basra during the second/eighth century. This implicit historical vision of hadīth transmission, coupled with the belief in the collective probity of the sahāba and the original discipline of hadīth-transmitter criticism, are, in my opinion, the foundations upon which Sunnī Islam was constructed by the hadīth scholars of the third/ninth century.

The following narrative is based almost exclusively upon the works of Ibn Sa'd, Ibn Ma'īn, and Ibn Ḥanbal, or their pupils. The first source is Ibn Ḥanbal's Musnad, or to be more precise, Ibn Ḥajar's study of this work that has been published as Aṭrāf musnad al-Imām Aḥmad ibn Ḥanbal. This book has already played a key role in the identification of the most prolific ṣaḥāba with regard to ḥadīth in the sixth chapter, and has been reemployed here to uncover their most significant tābi'ī pupils. The recensions of both al-Dūrī and al-Dārimī of Ibn Ma'īn's opinions contain much useful information about individual prominent transmitters, and the latter book is particularly helpful in that it opens with eleven scholars whose companions (aṣḥāb) all are evaluated comparatively in the same location. Finally, Ibn

¹ These eleven men are al-Zuhrī, Qatāda, al-A'mash, Ayyūb al-Sakhtiyānī, 'Amr b. Dīnār, al-Sha'bī, Ibrāhīm al-Nakha'ī, Abū Isḥāq al-Sabī'ī, Manṣūr b. al-Mu'tamir, Sufyān al-Thawrī, and Shu'ba; al-Dārimī, *Tārīkh*, 41-65.

Sa'd's al-Tabaqāt al-kabīr is of fundamental significance for this narrative because of its extensive notes on individual transmitters, especially in the Ḥijāz, and Ibn Sa'd's unique habit of providing quantitative grades in over six hundred cases. While these grades are the ambiguous expressions 'many hadīth', 'some hadīth', and 'few hadīth',' they do indicate the massive scope of hadīth transmission during the first two post-prophetic centuries of Islam, and provide vivid proof of the crash of Medinan hadīth transmission during the early 'Abbāsid period.

It is necessary to expand upon the theme of the magnitude of hadīth transmission prior to the succinct narrative of the major actors involved in this venture. Ibn Sa'd distinguishes 299 transmitters of 'many' hadīth, 155 of 'some', and 228 of 'a few' in the generations following the sahāba.3 When we consider that several hundred additional men are reported to have transmitted an unspecified quantity of prophetic material, it becomes clear that at least a thousand people subsequent to the saḥāba were involved in this project prior to the generation of Ibn Sa'd, Ibn Ma'īn, and Ibn Hanbal. If each of the forty-seven transmitters of 'many hadīth' found in Medina, Mecca, Kufa, and Basra of the generation preceding Ibn Sa'd, had at his disposal, as a conservative estimate, five hundred hadīth,4 there would have been 23,500 hadīth in circulation solely in these four cities. Although I shall endeavor to identify the most prominent scholars in each of the five periods of my narrative of hadīth transmission, it is clear that a thorough description of this vast expression of Islamic piety transcends the scope of this chapter.

My emphasis upon prolific hadīth-transmitters is supplemented by qualitative remarks about these men throughout this narrative. The reason for the inclusion of this information is threefold. First, I seek to demonstrate the high correlation between prominent hadīth scholars and reliable scholars, in the eyes of Ibn Sa'd, Ibn Ma'īn, and Ibn Hanbal, something that is unacknowledged by scholars, such as

Juynboll.⁵ Secondly, as was seen in the previous chapter with regard to Ibn Ma'in and Ibn Hanbal, critics often employed relative grades, which in turn enable us to ascertain the relative influences of individual pupils of major scholars upon the following generation of students. Finally, one of the most remarkable aspects of qualitative hadith-transmitter criticism is the willingness of some early scholars in general, and, in particular, Ibn 'Awn, to distinguish between the tābi'ūn who transmitted hadīth precisely and those who transmitted merely the gist of the report (bi-l-ma'nā) or who engaged in deceptive transmission (tadlīs). The affiliation of these negative practices with generally reliable hadīth scholars by the early critics adds credibility, in my opinion, to the overall narrative of the first two centuries of hadīth transmission, while, paradoxically, it suggests that a significant percentage of the vast hadith corpus never consisted of the exact locutions of the Prophet Muhammad, even though the reports were considered faithful to his practices and opinions.⁷

One question that must be addressed prior to the beginning of this narrative is the date of the origins of hadīth transmission on a significant scale. M. M. Azami states confidently that "it is beyond doubt that the system of isnād began from the time of the Prophet" and his impressive collection of fifty saḥāba for whom there are references to the act of written hadīth transmission suggests that this activity has existed at all times during Islamic history. Nabia Abbott states that "traditions were already being written down by quite a few even in Muḥammad's day" and does not appear to attach a post-prophetic date to the origins of hadīth. While Juynboll is interested

² These are kathīr al-ḥadīth, lahu or 'indahu aḥādīth, and qalīt al-ḥadīth, respectively.
³ The ṣaḥāba receive neither qualitative nor quantitative grades in al-Ṭābaqāt al-kabīr.

⁺ This estimate is probably conservative since one of these men, Abū Dāwūd al-Ţayālisī, transmitted over a thousand hadīth that are found in the surviving recension of his Musnad; furthermore, Ibn Ma'īn reports that Wakī' b. al-Jarrāh, another one of these forty-seven men, collected 800 hadīth just from his teacher al-A'mash; al-Dūrī, Tārīkh, I, 276.

⁵ Juynboll's chronology of the development of *hadīth*, about which I will have more to say in footnote 10, misses many of the most important *hadīth* scholars and focuses primarily on cases of weak or controversial transmitters; see *Muslim Tradītion*, 39–66. This rendering leaves the reader with the erroneous impression that the vast majority of transmitters were unreliable according to the Muslims' own standards, something that is not supported by the early sources I have studied.

⁶ The topic of tadlīs is discussed above, chapter II.2; see also Muqaddina Ibn al-Ṣalāḥ, 230-6.

⁷ This conclusion is corroborated by studies which compared the variants of individual reports, such as Motzki's "The Jurisprudence of Ibn Šihāb al-Zuhrī", 38-47.

⁸ M. M. Azami, Studies in Early Hadith Literature, 237. Pages 34–182 of this book consist of the heart of Azami's argument for the perennial transmission of hadith in written form, although most of the references are unique and derive from later sources.

⁹ Abbott, Studies in Arabic Literary Papayri, II, 7.

primarily in the *isnād* and its utility for dating *hadīth*, he does suggest that *hadīth* were in circulation in the (late) first century, since they were "standardized" during the lifetime of al-Zuhrī. Donner dates the collection of accounts of themes of Qur'ān, pre-Islamic Arabia, *nubuwwa*, *umma*, *futūh*, and *fitna*, to the years 70–100/689–718 and hypothesizes that these collectors "synthesized these materials into fairly coherent stories related to particular themes." Motzki, too, has stressed the importance of 'Atā b. Abī Rabāh's limited employment of *hadīth*, which he has demonstrated on the basis of his original analysis of 'Abd al-Razzāq's *Muṣannaf*, as "prime witnesses" for the existence of prophetic *hadīth* in the first century. The message from these secondary sources is unambiguous—some *hadīth* were in circulation during the first century, but there does not appear to have been any development during the lifetimes of most *sahāba*.

I would like to propose that hadīth transmission did not begin in earnest until the first civil wars, and that it commenced in Medina, the one city populated by many saḥāba that was relatively unaffected by the wars. ¹³ An intriguing piece of evidence for this claim is a report found in al-Tabaqāt al-kabīr that dates the wide scale transmission of hadīth transmission to Medina in the immediate aftermath of the killing of 'Uthmān. ¹⁴ The report names the saḥāba Ibn 'Abbās,

Muslim Tradition, 10. Juynboll's chronology of the development of hadīth demonstrates the peril of ignoring early sources like Ibn Sa'd's al-Ṭabaqāt al-kabīr, and relying instead upon late works, like Ibn Ḥajar's Tahdhīb al-tahdhīb. He manages to miss entirely the importance of Medina in the first century, ignores the most important transmitters from Anas in Basra, and, in general, bases his conclusions on a mere couple dozen transmitters.

Donner, Narratives of Islamic Origins, 279.

12 Motzki, The Origins of Islamic Jurisprudence, 158.

13 Recall that Goldziher recognized the early significance of Medina for hadīth transmission; see above in chapter 1. Motzki has argued, more specifically, for the role of Medina in the early development of the use of the isnād; The Origins of Islamic Jurisprudence, 240-1.

Ibn 'Umar, Abū Sa'īd al-Khudrī, Abū Hurayra, 'Abdullāh b. 'Amr b. al-'Āṣ, Jābir b. 'Abdullāh, Rāfi' b. Khadīj, Salama b. al-Akwa', Abū Wāqid al-Laythī, and 'Abdullāh b. Buḥayna, among the founders of this activity. This report is supported further by my findings in the sixth chapter that all seven of the most prolific saḥāba in the Musnad lived until at least the year 50/670, and by the fact that five of them lived in Medina. The primary consequences of this finding are that the first period of my narrative is titled "Before ḥadīth," and that I consider the true foundations of this quintessential Sunnī discipline to have been established by the younger saḥāba and tābišūn during the early Umayyad reign.

VIII.2 Before hadīth: Ṣahāba who died 11-40/632-660

Only ten saḥāba who passed away prior to Muʿāwiya's assumption of the caliphate played a noteworthy role in ḥadīth transmission. 'Umar and 'Uthmān were both religious as well as political leaders in Medina, 15 and the Qurʾānic expert Ubayy b. Kaʿb transmitted a minor amount of ḥadīth to Ibn 'Abbās, Abū l-'Āliya al-Riyāḥī, and his son Ṭufayl. 16 'Umar's decision to send 'Abdullāh b. Masʿūd first to Ḥimṣ and then to Kufa was of great consequence to the shape of ḥadīth scholarship, since an illustrious group of pupils surrounded Ibn Masʿūd in his second posting. 17 Kufa was also home to many minor transmitters of 'Alī's ḥadīth, none of whom approached the stature of Ibn Masʿūd's disciples. 18 A final sahābī who settled in Iraq,

^{14 [}A list of names] ... yuftūna bi-l-Madīna wa yuḥaddithūna 'an rasūli llāhi ﷺ min ladun tuwuffiya 'Uthmān ilā an tuwuffū; al-Tabaqāt al-kubrā, II, 437-8. The isnād for this report is al-Wāqidī → 'Abd al-Ḥamīd b. Ja'far b. 'Abdullāh al-Anṣārī (d. 153/770) → his father → Ziyād b. Mīnā. Ibn Abī Ḥātim reports on the authority of his father, that Ja'far b. 'Abdullāh al-Anṣārī transmitted from Ziyād b. Mīnā', although he grades neither Ziyād nor Ja'far; al-Jarḥ wa l-ta'dīl, II, 482 (Ja'far) and III, 536 (Ziyād). Ja'far is the great-grandson of the ṣaḥābī Rāfi' b. Sinān through his father and grandson of Rāfi' through his mother. Ibn Ḥajar reports that 'Abd al-Ḥamīd transmitted several hadīth from his father (Ja'far) on the authority of his grandfather

⁽Rāfi'), that are found in the *Sunan* of Abū Dāwūd, see *al-Isāba*, I, 497. Al-Dhahabī includes a near-idenitical version of this report with the same *isnād* and names Ibn Sa'd as his source; *Siyar*, II, 606–7.

¹⁵ Despite their public positions, it is surprising that only 167 atrāf from 'Urnar and 73 from 'Uthmān are found in Ibn Hanbal's Musnad; this fact contributes to the argument that hadīth transmission began in earnest after the outbreak of the first fitna. Note that a taraf represents, on average, a little less than three hadīth in the Musnad.

¹⁶ Ubayy transmitted 6 aṭrāf to Ibn 'Abbās, 8 to the Basran tābi'ī Abū l-'Aliya, and 7 to his son that are found in the Musnad of Ibn Ḥanbal. Ibn 'Abbās also transmitted 17 aṭrāf from 'Umar.

¹⁷ Ibn Mas'ūd is the most prolific pre-fitna ṣaḥābī with 369 aṭrāf in the Musnad, a feat that must have been due largely to his high caliber pupils.

¹⁸ None of 'Alī's students transmits more than 19 aṭrāf in the Musnad, while Abū Wā'il, 'Alqama, and Abū l-Aḥwaṣ transmit 43, 33, and 33 aṭrāf from Ibn Mas'ūd, respectively.

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Hudhayfa b. al-Yamān, also contributed to the dissemination of prophetic material, although he too appears to have lacked any prominent disciples. While the three Medinan saḥāba were overshadowed immediately by the prolific post-fitna saḥāba-transmitters, we shall see that none of the longer-lived Kufan saḥāba ever transmitted as many hadāth as Ibn Mas'ūd and 'Alī.

It is possible, had hadīth transmission commenced prior to the first fitna, that Syria would have played a far greater role than it did in its early development. Four sahāba settled in Syria and transmitted a modest body of material that ultimately found its way into Ibn Hanbal's Musnad. Abū Dharr al-Ghifarī's time in Syria was cut short, due largely to his piety-minded criticism that irritated Mu'awiya, and much of his surviving material passed through non-Syrian pupils.¹⁹ Ibn Sa'd identifies a few Syrian "companions" of Mu'ādh b. Jabal,²⁰ and the Kufan Ibn Abī Laylā appears to have played some role in disseminating his hadīth.21 Abū l-Dardā' and 'Ubāda b. al-Sāmit were both sent by 'Umar to Hims and Jerusalem, respectively, and neither one of them was able to attract any pupils who were capable of attracting the wholesale admiration of Ibn Sa'd, Ibn Ma'īn, or Ibn Hanbal.²² While it is tempting to speculate that Syria would have had a greater impact upon hadīth scholarship had these sahāba outlived the first civil war, the failure of these four men to attract superior students helps explain the general absence of Syrian hadīth scholars of widespread acclaim prior to al-Awzā'ī.23

VIII.3 Foundations: Ṣaḥāba and senior tābi'ūn who died 40-80/660-699 and their pupils who lived prior to 120/738

While the political capital of the Umayyads was in Syria, the religious capital lay to the south in Medina. Five of the seven most

prolific sahāba thrived in this city and were blessed by a number of distinguished pupils among the tābiʿūn. The hadāth of these men and women were disseminated to Kufa and Basra, where they found fertile ground. Mecca also experienced a brief period of energetic hadāth transmission during this period, largely due to the efforts of Ibn 'Abbās and the major tābiʿūn 'Aṭā' b. Abī Rabāḥ and Mujāhid b. Jabr. But Medina, city of the Prophet, was the most critical center and catalyst for hadāth transmission and requires a closer investigation as to the reasons for its prominence.

Did the Umayyads play an active role in the elevation of Medina as the hadīth capital of the Islamic world during their reign? There is strong evidence that Abū Hurayra, the most incessant transmitter of prophetic locutions among the sahāba, had close relations to the regime, as he was appointed acting governor when Marwan left town for pilgrimages or other functions.²⁴ Two of Marwan b. al-Hakam's sons, 'Abd al-'Azīz and Muhammad, are reported by Ibn Sa'd to have transmitted hadīth from Abū Hurayra, and it is quite likely that the caliph 'Abd al-Malik was familiar with some of his material.25 This being said, Abū Hurayra's prominence in the field of hadīth transmission was due most likely to his success in attracting at least four extraordinarily prolific students: Abū Sālih Dhakwān (d. 101/719), Abū Salama b. 'Abd al-Raḥmān (d. 94/713), 'Abd al-Raḥmān b. Hurmuz al-A'raj (d. 117/735), and Hammām b. Munabbih (d. 101/ 719). Ibn Ḥanbal collected 733 atrāf on the authority of Abū Hurayra from just these four sources in his Musnad, a sum that is greater than the total amount of hadīth he accumulated from all but four other saḥāba.26

The three next most prolific saḥāba in Medina, 'Ā'isha, Ibn 'Umar, and Jābir b. 'Abdullāh, all appear to have achieved their high status on the basis of their impressive students. Over one quarter of 'Ā'isha's transmissions found in the *Musnad* were transmitted by her nephew 'Urwa b. al-Zubayr (d. 94/713), and significant amounts of material reached this book from Abū Salama b. 'Abd al-Raḥmān and al-Qāsim

Two of the transmitters of multiple $a\underline{traf}$ of his material are the Basran Abū l-Aswad al-Du'alī (9 atraf) and 'Abdullāh b. al-Ṣāmit (14 atraf).

²⁰ These include 'Abd al-Raḥmān b. Ghanm b. Sa'd and Yazīd b. 'Amīra al-Zubaydī; TK 2001, IX, 444.

²¹ İbn Abī Laylā transmits 9 aţrāf in the Musnad from Mu'ādh.

²² Abū l-Dardā"s most prominent pupil in the *Musnad* is Abū Idrīs al-Khawlānī (7 atrāf).

²³ Although al-Zuhrī spent much time in Syria, he is always considered a Medinan because of his family's roots in that city, as well as the fact that the vast majority of his teachers were Medinese.

²⁴ TK 2001, V, 253. The three reports that mention this fact do not specify during which year(s) these events took place.

²⁵ TK 2001, VII, 232-3.

²⁶ Abū Sālih contributed 200 aṭrāf, Abū Salama 195, al-A'raj 195, and Hammām 143; this represents roughly one third of the Abū Hurayra material found in Ibn Hanbal's *Musnad*.

b. Muḥammad b. Abī Bakr (d. 108/726).²⁷ Ibn 'Umar's mawlā and pupil Nāfi' (d. 117/735) is the largest transmitter of hadīth from any single ṣaḥābī in Ibn Ḥanbal's Musnad, and Ibn 'Umar's son Sālim (d. 106/724) also played a significant role in the dissemination of his father's material.²⁸ Jābir b. 'Abdullāh was one of the longest-lived Medinan ṣaḥāba and the benefactor of the work of his Meccan pupil Abū l-Zubayr (d. 128/746), whom I have placed in the following period of ḥadīth transmission due to his presence in the third ṭabaqa in Ibn Sa'd's book.

A final group of three sahāba enriched the vibrant community of hadīth scholars in Medina during the Umayyad decades of the first and second centuries. Abū Saʿīd al-Khudrī, transmitted an impressive amount of hadīth, especially given the absence of a single exceptionally prolific pupil. ²⁹ 'Abdullāh b. 'Amr b. al-'Āṣ is reported to have transmitted written hadīth on a ṣaḥīfa entitled al-Ṣādiq to his grandson Shuʿayb b. Muḥammad, who in turn passed it on to his son 'Amr b. Shuʿayb, and it appears that eighty-five of 'Abdullāh b. 'Amr's aṭrāf in the Muṣnad were derived from this ṣahīfa. ³⁰ Finally, Umm Salama, the second most prolific widow of the Prophet Muḥammad, taught a modest body of hadīth that found its way into the Muṣnad, despite the absence of any particularly strong champions of her material. ³¹

A fundamental reason for the dominance of Medinan $had\bar{\imath}th$ lies in the dedication of numerous $t\bar{a}bi\bar{\imath}u\bar{n}$ who disseminated hundreds of $had\bar{\imath}th$ to their own pupils, many of whom hailed from Iraq and else-

where. Ibn Sa'd preserves many of al-Wagidi's observations about the large numbers of sahāba from whom several of these men transmitted these reports. Abū Salama b. 'Abd al-Raḥmān, whose mother was the royal princess of Kinda mentioned above in the sixth chapter, was responsible for 252 atrāf in the Musnad from Abū Hurayra, 'Ā'isha, Abū Sa'īd al-Khudrī, Umm Salama, and Jābir b. 'Abdullāh, and heard reports from at least an additional five saḥāba as well.32 'Urwa b. al-Zubayr, another Medinan son of a sahābī, transmitted a colossal amount of prophetic material from his aunt 'Ā'isha, as well as at least another eleven sahāba.33 Sa'īd b. al-Musayyab, a sonin-law of Abū Hurayra, played a relatively modest role in the Musnad of Ibn Hanbal, but was considered valuable not only for the prophetic material he transmitted from a dozen or so sahāba, but for his expertise in the legal rulings of the caliphs 'Umar and 'Uthman as well.34 Al-Qāsim b. Muhammad b. Abī Bakr not only transmitted a notable body of material from his aunt 'Ā'isha,35 but is reported by Ibn 'Awn to have transmitted what he heard literally, as opposed to the common habit of imprecise transmission (bi-l-ma'nā), something which must have increased the value of his hadīth in the eyes of later, more critical compilers.³⁶ While these men are only four of the fifty Medinans who transmitted 'many hadīth' during this period, according to Ibn

²⁷ Both Abū Salama and al-Qāsim transmitted 68 atrāf from 'Ā'isha.

²⁸ Nāfi' contributed a stunning 510 aṭrāf on the authority of Ibn 'Umar to the Musnad; Sālim supplied an additional 146. There is an academic debate between Juynboll and Motzki about the reliability of the Nāfi' reports from Ibn 'Umar and whether Nāfi' even really was a student of Ibn 'Umar; see Juynboll, "Nāfi', the Mawlā of Ibn 'Umar, and his Position in Muslim Hadīth Literature," Der Islam 70 (1993), 207–44 atīd Motzki, "Quo vadīs Hadīt-Forschung? Eine kritische Untersuchung von G. H. A. Juynboll: 'Nāfi', the Mawlā of Ibn 'Umar, and his Position in Muslim Hadīth Literature'", Der Islam 73 (1996), 40–80; 193–231.

²⁰ Abū Sa'īd's most prolific pupil in the *Musnad* was the Basran Abū Naḍra al-Mundhir b. Mālik who transmitted 50 aṭrāf from him; a second notable student was the Kuſan 'Aṭiyya b. Sa'd al-Awlī who added another 48 aṭrāf to Ibn Ḥanbal's compendium.

³⁰ Although 'Abdullāh b. 'Amr is associated with Egypt, his grandson and great-grandson lived in Medina; Ibn Sa'd includes them in the second and third *tabaqāt* of Medinans, respectively; TK 2001, VII, 239–40 (Shu'ayb) and 412 ('Amr).

³¹ The largest number of atrāf of her material pass through Abū Salama (12); no other individual transmits more than ten atrāf from her in the Musnad.

³² Abū Salama transmitted 150 aṭrāf from Abū Hurayra, 68 from 'Ā'isha, 12 from Abū Sa'īd, 12 from Umm Salama, and 10 from Jābir. Al-Wāqidī reports that Abū Salama heard ḥadīth from Zayd b. Thābit, Abū Qatāda, Ibn 'Umar, 'Abdullāh b. 'Amr, and Ibn 'Abbās as well; TK 2001, VII, 153. Al-Wāqidī's claim that he transmitted from his father is contradicted by Ibn Ma'īn, who states that he did not hear anything from him since he was very young at his time of death; al-Dūrī, Tārīkh, I, 64.

³³ Al-Wāqidī mentions that he heard hadīth from his father, Zayd b. Thābit, Usāma b. Zayd, 'Abdullāh b. al-Arqam, Abū Ayyūb, Abū Hurayra, Muʻāwiya, 'Abdullāh b. 'Anır, Ibn 'Umar, Ibn 'Abbās, and his brother 'Abdullāh; TK 2001, VII, 177. 'Urwa's preference for prophetic hadīth over āthār of sahāba has been observed by Motzki; see The Origins of Islamic Jurisprudence, 240.

³⁴ laysa aḥadun a'lamu bi-kulli mā qaḍā bihi 'Umar wa 'Uthmān, ȚK 2001, VII, 119–42. This quote is from al-Wāqidī, who also reports that Sa'īd heard from Zayd b. Thābit, Sa'd b. Abī Waqqāş, Ibn 'Abbās, Ibn 'Umar, 'Ā'isha, Umm Salama, 'Uthmān, 'Alī, Ṣuhayb, Muḥammad b. Maslama, and, of course, Abū Hurayra. Ibn Ḥanbal includes 87 aṭrāf of Abū Hurayra from Sa'īd in the Musnad.

³⁵ İbn Ḥanbal includes 68 of his aṭrāf from 'Ā'isha in the Musnad; al-Wāqidī mentions that al-Qāsim also heard from Abū Hurayra, Ibn 'Abbās, and Ibn 'Umar, among others; TK 2001, VII, 186. Ibn al-Madīnī reports that al-Qāsim had 200 hadīth; al-Dhahabī, Tadhkira, I, 75.

³⁶ Ibn 'Awn's opinion is found in both al-Ţabaqāt al-kabīr and 'Abdullāh's 'Ilal; see ṬK 2001, VII, 186 and Mawsū'at aqwāl al-Imām Aḥmad, III, 166.

Sa'd,³⁷ their role in the establishment of their hometown as the capital of *hadīth* scholarship during the Umayyad era may have been even more critical than that of the small core of *ṣaḥāba* who eagerly described the practices of the Prophet whom they had witnessed.

Another reason for the prestige accorded to Medina was its role in exporting hadīth to the cities of Kufa and Basra. One of the most significant bridges between Medina and Kufa was Abū Sālih Dhakwān, who moved to Kufa and shared his knowledge of Abū Hurayra's hadith with young pupils, such as al-A'mash, whom we shall encounter in the next period.³⁸ Two other Kufans who brought Abū Hurayra's hadīth to Kufa were Abū Hāzim al-Ashja'ī and Abū Zur'a b. 'Amr. a grandson of the sahābī Jarīr b. 'Abdullāh.39 Both Masrūq b. al-Ajda' (d. 63/683) and al-Aswad b. Yazīd (d. 75/694), two disciples of Ibn Mas'ūd, brought a significant body of prophetic teachings back to Kufa from 'Ā'isha, and 'Atiyya b. Sa'd al-'Awfī (d. 110/728) performed the same service for Abū Sa'īd al-Khudrī. 40 Muhammad b. Sīrīn (d. 110/728), one of the venerable $t\bar{a}bi'\bar{u}n$ of Basra, brought a substantial body of Abū Hurayra hadīth to his home, and Abū Nadra did the same with hadīth of Abū Sa'īd al-Khudrī.⁴¹ These are only a few examples of the most prominent Iraqi tābi^xūn who acquired prophetic material in Medina in order to enhance the state of hadīth transmission in their home towns.

Although Kufa never enjoyed the presence of a saḥābī who was more prolific than Ibn Mas'ūd, an additional five men contributed

a body of hadīth that equaled a little more than 350 atrāf in the Musnad of Ibn Hanbal. Abū Mūsā l-Ash'arī, a rugged general and governor of Iraq, appears to have been the most prolific Kufan after Ibn Mas'ūd and 'Alī, due largely to the role of his son Abū Burda (d. 104/722), who served as a $q\bar{a}d\bar{i}$ in this city.⁴² A second $sah\bar{a}b\bar{i}$, al-Barā' b. 'Āzib, gained prominence because of the volume of material transmitted by the centurion Abū Ishāq al-Sabī'ī, whom we shall encounter in the next period. 43 A similar case to that of al-Barã' and Abū Ishāq is Jābir b. Samura al-Suwā'ī, and his devoted student, Simāk b. Harb al-Dhuhlī, also of the next period.44 Finally, al-Mughīra b. Shu'ba and Sa'd b. Abī Wagqās, two men whom we saw in the sixth chapter were at opposite ends of the spectrum with regard to permissibility of the Umayyad practice of cursing 'Alī, each contributed 51 atrāf to the Musnad of Ibn Hanbal, and were clearly unsuccessful in attracting any prolific pupils to disseminate their reports.

The strength in Umayyad-era hadīth scholarship in Kufa was located in an impressive array of tābiʿūn, many of whom had been pupils of Ibn Masʿūd. Leading transmitters of Ibn Masʿūd's hadīth include Abū Wā'il Shaqīq b. Salama, 'Alqama b. Qays, Abū l-Aḥwaṣ 'Awf b. Mālik, al-Aswad b. Yazīd, and Masrūq b. al-Ajda'. All of these men are reported by Ibn Sa'd to have heard reports from a variety of sahāba, such as 'Umar, 'Alī, and Abū Mūsā, and Abū Wā'il is said to have traveled as far as Syria to hear from Abū l-Dardā'. A particularly significant pupil of these disciples of Ibn Mas'ūd was the short-lived Ibrāhīm al-Nakha'ī (d. 95/714), who was a nephew of both 'Alqama and al-Aswad, and, according to Ibn 'Awn, transmitted hadīth imprecisely (bi-l-ma'nā). Another particularly well-versed

³⁷ Only two of these fifty men receive a grade inferior to *thiqa* by Ibn Sa'd: 'Ikrima *mawlā* Ibn 'Abbās and al-Muṭṭalib b. 'Abdullāh are evaluated as 'not authoritative' (*laysa yuḥṭajju bihi*); TK 2001, VII, 282, 409. Juynboll discusses briefly the controversial nature of 'Ikrima's transmissions; *Muslim Tradition*, 55–7.

³⁸ Abū Ṣālih was considered reliable by both Ibn Ma'īn and Ibn Ḥanbal; Ibn Abī Ḥātim, *al-Ṭarh wa l-ta'dīl*, III, 450-1.

³⁹ Both men transmitted 34 atrāf from Abū Hurayra that were included in the Musnad of Ibn Panbal, and Ibn Sa'd mentions that both of them transmitted from Abū Hurayra; TK 2001, VIII, 197, 191.

¹⁰ Masrūq is responsible for 36 aṭrāf from 'Ā'isha found in the Musnad, while al-Aswad contributed 45. 'Aṭiyya was the most prolific transmitter from Abū Sa'īd, with 48 aṭrāf in the Musnad. 'Aṭiyya is also one of the most important sources of Ibn 'Abbās's exegetical comments in al-Ṭabarī's tafsīr, see GAS, I, 30–1. His highly recognizable family-isnād occurs approximately 1560 times in this book; note that the incorrect version of this isnād appears in Horst, "Zur Überlieferung im Koran-kommentar aṭ-Ṭabarīs," 294, and that the correct one is found in Berg, The Development of Exegesis in Early Islam, 96.

⁴¹ Ibn Sīrīn heard 68 aṭrāf from Abū Hurayra found in the *Musnad*; Abū Naḍra transmitted 50 aṭrāf from Abū Saʿid al-Khudrī in this book as well.

¹² Over one third (41) of Abū Mūsā's 118 aṭrāf in the Musnad can be traced through his son.

⁴³ Abū Ishāq is responsible for 37 of al-Barā''s 94 atrāf in the Musnad.

H Simāk transmitted 35 of Jābir's 54 atrāf in the Musnad.

⁴⁵ Ibn Sa'd identifies a total of nineteen men, all of whom received the grade thiqa, who transmitted 'many hadīth' in the first two tabaqāt of Kufans.

⁴⁶ Abū Wā'il contributed 43 aṭrāf from Ibn Mas'ūd to the Musnad; 'Alqama and Abū l-Ahwas each added 33 aṭrāf; al-Aswad supplied 19 aṭrāf, and Masrūq added a mere 14.

⁴⁷ TK 2001, VIII, 222.

⁴⁸ TK 2001, VIII, 388–402. We shall see shortly that Ibrāhīm's disciples Manṣūr b. al-Mu'tamir and al-A'mash were the key figures of the next generation of Kufan hadīth scholars; another one of his pupils, al-Ḥakam b. 'Utayba (d. 115/733) lived in the period currently under discussion.

tābi'ī of Kufa during this time was 'Āmir b. Sharāḥīl al-Sha'bī (d. after 100/718), who served as a qāqī under 'Umar b. 'Abd al-'Azīz and spent between eight and ten months with Ibn 'Umar in Medina during the revolt of al-Mukhtār (66-67/685-7). Although al-Sha'bī did enjoy a group of associates, one of his star pupils, Ibn 'Awn, declares that he too transmitted hadīth imprecisely, ⁴⁹ and Ibn Ma'īn charged that his material from 'Ā'isha was not heard from her directly as he claimed. ⁵⁰ A final tābī' of great significance for Kufa was Sa'īd b. Jubayr, a close disciple of Ibn 'Abbās, who was executed by al-Ḥajjāj in 94/712-3. ⁵¹ It is clear that the assiduous tābī'ūn of Kufa more than compensated for the absence of prolific ṣaḥāba in their home town and laid the foundations for the extraordinary compilers who were to flourish during the early decades of the 'Abbāsid period.

The heart of Umayyad-era hadīth transmission in Basra was one of the longest-lived sahāba and five impressive tābī'ūn. Anas b. Mālik, the Anṣārī servant of the Prophet Muḥammad, owed his prominence both due to his remarkable longevity and the dedication of his disciples Thābit b. Aslam al-Bunānī (d. 123/740) and Qatāda b. Di'āma (d. 117/735).⁵² It is important to note that Ibn 'Awn cast doubt on the precision of Anas's transmission of prophetic locutions, as he remarked that Anas would often say "or how the Messenger said it" after reciting a hadīth.⁵³ Two tābī'ūn who were senior to Thābit and Qatāda were al-Hasan al-Baṣrī and Muḥammad b. Sīrīn, both of whom heard reports from many sahāba. Al-Ḥasan contributed small amounts of material from Abū Hurayra, 'Imrān b. Ḥuṣayn, Anas, Samura b. Jundab, Jābir b. 'Abdullāh, and Abū Mūsa to the Musnad of Ibn Ḥanbal, ⁵⁴ and he is reported to have transmitted reports to

several $t\bar{u}b'\bar{u}n$ in Mecca during one of his visits there. Ibn 'Awn reports that al-Ḥasan's primary difference from his contemporary and friend, Muḥammad b. Sīrīn, was that he transmitted hadīth imprecisely, whereas Ibn Sīrīn used the exact words in his reports. Furthermore, Shu'ba learned from his mother that Ibn Sīrīn heard hadīth directly from Abū Hurayra and Ibn 'Umar, and Ibn Ma'īn adds that he heard from Ḥudhayfa as well. The final major $t\bar{u}bi'\bar{v}$ of Basra during this early period was Abū Naḍra al-Mundhir b. Mālik (d. 108/726), a close pupil of Abū Sa'īd al-Khudrī, whom Ibn Ma'īn favored over the major Kufan student of Abū Sa'īd, 'Aṭiyya b. Sa'd al-'Awfī. The strange of t

The final major locale of significant hadīth transmission during the greater part of the Umayyad era was the holy city of Mecca. Ibn 'Abbās enjoyed a diverse group of devoted pupils, who ranged from the Khārijī 'Ikrima, to the martyred Sa'id b. Jubayr of Kufa, to Ṭāwūs b. Kaysān of Yemen.⁵⁸ Two other students of Ibn 'Abbās, Mujāhid b. Jabr (d. 102/720) and 'Aṭā' b. Abī Rabāḥ (d. 114/732),

⁴⁹ TK 2001, VIII, 369.

⁵⁰ Al-Dūrī, *Tārīkh*, I, 351.

⁵¹ TK 2001, WIII, 374. Sa'īd transmitted 138 aṭrāf from Ibn 'Abbās and 14 aṭrāf from Ibn 'Umar in the Musnad. Ibn Sa'd reports that Sa'īd only wrote down Ibn 'Abbās's hadīth after his teacher went blind, and that Ibn 'Abbās was quite upset when Sa'īd's actions were brought to his attention. He also reports that al-Daḥḥāk b. Muzāḥim's (d. 105/723) alleged tafsīr from Ibn 'Abbās was actually obtained from Sa'īd when the latter visited him in Rayy and not from Ibn 'Abbās directly; ibid., VIII, 418. See also GAS, I, 28–30. A recension of al-Daḥḥāk's tafsīr is cited 670 times in al-Ṭabarī's tafsīr, see Horst, 304–5.

⁵² Thābit contributed 187 aṭrāf from Anas to the Musnad, and Qatāda added an additional 142; this consists of a little over a third of Anas's material in the Musnad.

aw kamā qāla rasūlu llāhi 萬; TK 2001, IX, 20.
 Al-Hasan transmitted 33 atrāf from Abū Huravra, 19 from 'Imrān, 9 from

Anas, 29 from Samura, 7 from Jābir, and 4 from Abū Mūsā in the *Musnad*. Ibn Sa'd reports that al-Ḥasan's hadīth from Abū Hurayra were not actually heard from him, and that Yaḥyā l-Qaṭṭān declared that his hadīth from Samura were from a written source (kitāb); TK 2001, IX, 159. Ibn Ḥanbal also includes reports, on the authority of 'Alī b. Zayd (d. 131/748) and Ayyūb al-Sakhtiyānī, that al-Ḥasan did not hear ḥadīth directly from Abū Hurayra; Mawsū'at aqwāl al-Imām Ahmad, I, 251.

⁵⁵ TK 2001, IX, 193. This report is also transmitted by Ibn Ḥanbal, who heard it from his teacher Hushaym b. Bashīr, who heard it from Ibn 'Awn; Mausū'at aqual al-Imām Ahmad, I, 247. A second variant of the report, transmitted from Ibn 'Awn to Ibn Ḥanbal by Ismā'īl b. 'Ulayya reads: Ibn 'Awn said "al-Ḥasan, Ibrāhīm [al-Nakha'ī], and al-Sha'bī say (yuhaddithūn) a hadīth one time like this, and another time like that. I mentioned this fact to Ibn Sīrīn, and he replied 'Had they reproduced exactly what they had heard, it would have been better for them';" ibid., I, 248.

⁵⁶ ȚK 2001, IX, 192 and al-Dūrī, *Tārīkh*, I, 14.

⁵⁷ Al-Dūrī, *Tārīkh*, I, 321. This opinion was shared by Abū Ḥātim al-Rāzī, who reports that Abū Nadra's pupils include Qatāda, Sulaymān al-Taymī, and Dāwūd b. Abī Ḥind; Ibn Abī Ḥātim, al-Ṭarḥ wa l-ta'dīl, VIII, 241.

^{50 &#}x27;Ikrima transmitted 190 of the atrāf on the authority of Ibn 'Abbās in the Musnad, Sa'īd b. Jubayr contributed 138, and Ṭāwūs added 51; these three men supplied 47% of Ibn Hanbal's Ibn 'Abbās material. Note that while al-Bukhārī included 'Ikrima's hadīth in his Ṣahīth, Mālik and Muslim both shunned his transmissions; al-Dhahabī, Tadhkira, I, 74. Ibn Ma'īn, however, grades 'Ikrima as thiqa; al-Dārimī, Tārīkh, 117, 163, 169. Muḥammad b. Naṣr al-Marwazī, one of al-Dhahabī's Shuyūkh al-Islām we encountered in the third chapter, is also cited as saying that the majority of hadīth scholars of his day, including Ibn Hanbal, Ibn Rāhawayh, and Ibn Ma'īn, agreed that 'Ikrima's hadīth were authoritative; Mawsū'at aquāl al-Imām Ahmad, III, 29 (the original quote is in Ibn Hajar's Tahdhīb al-tahdhīb).

may have been known more for their role in the origins of Our'anic exegesis and figh than hadith, and Ibn Sa'd reports that Mujāhid read the Our'an to Ibn 'Abbas no fewer than thirty times. 59 'Ata"s prominence is illustrated further by Ibn Ma'īn's report that people thought it odd that Ibn Abī Laylā, who was his senior, asked 'Aṭā' questions pertaining to religion, and Ibn Ma'īn reports that Mujāhid made a trip to Kufa that enabled him to disseminate his erudition in the second most important city of religious learning in his day. 60 Note also that 'Ikrima is reported to have traveled to Kufa during the insurrection of al-Mukhtar, and that the Basran notable Ibn Sīrīn heard reports from him there as well.⁶¹ While Mecca was clearly overshadowed by its northern neighbor with regard to hadīth transmission, it is important to recognize that Ibn 'Abbās's impressive circle of pupils impacted both the fields of hadīth transmission, figh, and Our'anic exegesis during the period immediately following the first civil war.

In the eyes of the generation of Ibn Sa'd, Ibn Ma'īn, and Ibn Ḥanbal, the seeds of Sunnī hadīth compilation and criticism were planted firmly during the Umayyad period, particularly in the cities of Medina, Kufa, Basra, and Mecca. Medina dominated the origins of this movement, due to the presence of seven exceptionally articulate sahāba and their loyal pupils, several of whom came from Iraq. There is little evidence of overt Umayyad sponsorship of hadīth transmission during this time, with the notable exception of 'Umar b. 'Abd al-'Azīz, 62 and several prominent scholars did their utmost to avoid the regime. There is also very little evidence of hadīth being written at this point, and the employment of isnāds would have been

utterly unnecessary, for the simple reason that it would have been easy for each tābi'ī to recall whether their sahābī teachers had heard their prophetic reports from the Prophet himself or from another sahābī. There does appear to have been a relatively high degree of laxity in precision transmission during this period, as major transmitters, such as Anas, al-Sha'bī, Ibrāhīm al-Nakha'ī, and al-Hasan al-Baṣrī, were all reported to have conveyed the general meaning of the Prophet's locutions instead of his exact words. This imprecision should not, of course, be confused with fabrication, since we can safely assume that there was an effort by these early pious scholars to convey the message of whatever teaching they had learned rather than the actual citation.⁶³ While this sketch can hardly do justice to the vast enterprise of hadith transmission during the first eight Umayyad decades as depicted in our third/ninth century sources, it does highlight a coterie of significant sahāba and tābi'ūn whose work set the stage for a period of systematic compilation by a couple dozen of their pupils, most of whom carried out their work uninterrupted by the violent transfer of power from the house of Banū Umayya to the descendents of Ibn 'Abbas.

VIII.4 The first compilers: The generation who died 120-150/738-767

The generation of Muslim scholars who lived during the twilight years of the Umayyads and the dawn of the 'Abbāsids transformed radically the nature of hadāth transmission. Most of these men were identified as specialists of a particular body of hadāth from a saḥābā or tābi'ī, and they themselves cultivated easily identifiable circles of disciples. References to written materials become frequent in this period, although it is clear that the production of well organized books (taṣnāf) of hadāth required at least another generation to develop. While Medina maintained a high level of hadāth scholarship into the early 'Abbāsid period, it was arguably surpassed by a group of Basrans during this time, and Kufa and Mecca experienced a slight reduction in their numbers of prominent hadāth folk.

³⁰ TK 2001, VIII, 28. Mujāhid contributed 21 atrāf on the authority Ibn 'Abbās, 21 on the authority of Ibn 'Umar, and 11 on the authority of 'Ā'isha in the Musnad; 'Aṭā' transmitted 34 atrāf from Ibn 'Abbās, 37 from Jābir b. 'Abdullāh, and 13 from 'Ā'isha. Note that Ibn Ma'īn reports that Yaḥyā l-Qaṭṭān denied that Mujāhid heard hadīth directly from 'Ā'isha, al-Dūrī, Tārīkh, I, 77. This same opinion is attributed to Shu'ba by Ibn Hanbal in the 'Ilal; Mawsū'at aqwāl al-Imām Aḥmad, III, 223. For a thorough biography of 'Aṭā', see Motzki, The Origins of Islamic Jurisprudence, 246–62; for an analysis of his transmissions in the Musannaf of 'Abd al-Razzāq, see ibid., 77–172.

 $^{^{60}}$ Al-Dūrī, $T\bar{a}n\bar{t}kh$, I, 203 (Ibn Abī Laylā's questions); I, 263 (Mujāhid's trip to Kufa).

⁶¹ TK 2001, IX, 193.

⁶² See, for example, Juynboll, Muslim Tradition, 35-9. Note that Ibn Sa'd reports that 'Umar b. 'Abd al-'Azīz was thiqa-ma'mūn and transmitted 'many hadīth'; TK 2001, VII, 397.

⁶³ This assumption rests less on the religious sincerity of these early men than on the practical challenge of sheer fabrication in places where multiple authorities lived and were consulted by students who could have detected easily idiosyncrasies in one of their teacher's reports.

Medina enjoyed the presence of over thirty transmitters of 'many hadīth' during this transition period, according to Ibn Sa'd. The most famous of these men, al-Zuhrī (d. 124/742), spent almost his entire adult life in the service of the Umayyads, and synthesized the materials of Sa'īd b. al-Musayyab, 'Urwa b. al-Zubayr, and Sālim b. 'Abdullāh b. 'Umar, among others, for his pupils.64 While the importance of al-Zuhrī and his close relationship with the Umayyads has long been recognized and even studied in some detail by Nabia Abbott and Michael Lecker, 65 several other major hadīth transmitters of Medina have received relatively little attention. 'Ubayd Allāh b. 'Umar b. Ḥafṣ (d. 147/764) was a prolific pupil of Nāfi' mawlā Ibn 'Umar, 66 and Hishām b. 'Urwa (d. 146/763) transmitted a significant body of 'A'isha's hadīth from his father. 67 Ibn Ma'īn reiterates that 'Amr b. Shu'ayb's hadīth that trace back to his great-grandfather 'Abdullāh b. 'Amr were weak because they were transmitted solely by means of written materials, although, on a positive note, he affirms that 'Amr was reliable with that which he heard from Sa'id b. al-Musayyab and 'Urwa b. Zubayr. 68 Yahyā b. Sa'īd al-Ansārī (d. 143/

⁶⁵ See Abbott, Studies in Arabic Literary Papyri, II, 30-6 and Michael Lecker,

"Biographical Notes on Ibn Shihāb al-Zuhrī," 21-63.

67 Ibn Hanbal includes 105 atrāf from Hishām → 'Urwa → 'Ā'isha in the Musnad. Note that Hisham was one of the first Medinans to move to Baghdad, a trend that was to intensify in the following generation. Ibn Sa'd evaluates him as thiqa-thabthujia and Ibn Ma'īn states that he is as reliable as al-Zuhrī in his transmissions from his father Urwa; TK 2001, VII, 462 and al-Dārimī, Tārīkh, 203.

760) was considered by Sufvān al-Thawrī to have been one of the four huffāz of this generation, 69 and Abū l-Zinād 'Abdullāh b. Dhakwān (d. 131/748) shared a teaching circle with the prolific jurist and hadīth-transmitter Rabī'a b. Abī 'Abd al-Rahmān al-Ra'y (d. 136/753)⁷⁰ in the Prophet's mosque in Medina for awhile.⁷¹ Despite the presence of high caliber hadīth-transmitters in Medina who outlived al-Zuhrī, it is quite significant that only al-Zuhrī was able to build an enthusiastic core of pupils, and we shall see that it was even more significant that almost all of these men, with the notable exception of Mālik b. Anas, chose to reside in cities other than Medina.

Basran scholars seized the mantle of hadīth scholarship during the period of 120-150/738-767 and held it at least through the generation of Ibn Sa'd, Ibn Ma'īn, and Ibn Ḥanbal.72 Humayd b. Abī Humayd al-Tawīl (d. 142/759) was a major transmitter of hadīth from Anas b. Mālik, copied the writings (kutub) of al-Hasan al-Basrī, and read them back to him. 73 Ayyūb al-Sakhtiyānī (d. 131/749) was

Despite Rabī'a's lagab "al-Ra'y", Ibn Sa'd reports that he transmitted 'many hadīth', even though some hadīth scholars avoided them due to his ra'y (wa ka'annahum yattaqunahu li-l-ra'y); TK 2001, VII, 511. Ibn Sa'd, Ibn Ḥanbal, and Abu Ḥātim al-Rāzī all evaluate Rabī'a as thiga; ibid., Mawsū'at agwāl al-Imām Ahmad, I, 371-2, and Ibn Abī Ḥātim, al-Jarh wa l-ta'dīl, III, 475. Rabī'a's pupils include Shu'ba, Sufyān al-Thawrī, and Mālik; ibid.

TK 2001, VII, 508. Ibn Sa'd and Ibn Hanbal evaluate Abū l-Zinād as thiga; ibid., Mawsū'at aqwāl al-Imām Ahmad, II, 240-1. Ibn al-Madīnī also remarks that "nobody after the senior tābi^xūn was more knowledgeable than Ibn Shihāb (al-Zuhrī), Yahyā b. Sa'īd (al-Anṣārī), Abū l-Zinād, and Bukayr b. al-Ashaji (d. 120/738);" al-Farh wa l-ta'dīl, V, 49.

72 Ibn Sa'd identifies fifteen Basrans as transmitters of 'many hadīth'; the only men who receive negative grades are 'Alī b. Zayd b. Ju'dān (fihi da'f) and 'Amr b. 'Ubayd ("worthless"); TK 2001, IX, 251 and 272.

⁷³ Ibn Hanbal includes 127 atrāf of Anas from Humayd al-Tawīl in the Musnad, although Ibn Ma'in claims that Humayd heard only 24 hadith directly from Anas and that he obtained the rest from Thabit al-Bunani; al-Duri, Tarikh, II, 246. The report about Humayd copying al-Hasan's notes is found in ibid., II, 268 and from

⁶⁴ Al-Zuhrī contributes 91 atrāf of 'Ā'isha from 'Urwa to the Musnad of Ibn Hanbal, as well 82 atrāf of Ibn Umar from Sālim, and 33 from Anas b. Mālik, whom he apparently heard directly. For a list of his teachers, see TK 2001, VII,

⁶⁶ Ibn Sa'd evaluated him as thiga-huÿa; ТК 2001, VII, 531. Ibn Hanbal includes 125 atrāf of his from Nāfi' on the authority of Ibn 'Umar in the Musnad. He evaluated him as thiga and as the most reliable pupil of Nāfi'; Mawsū'at agwāl al-Imām Ahmad, II, 408-9. Ibn Ma'īn held the opinion that 'Ubayd Allāh was as reliable as Mālik in his transmissions from Nāfi'; al-Dārimī, Tārīkh, 152.

⁶⁸ Al-Dūrī, Tārīkh, II, 355. Ibn Sa'd does not grade 'Amr b. Shu'ayb, but does mention his well-known sahīfa in his entry in the third tabaga of Medinans: TK 2001, VII, 412. Ibn Abī Hātim includes three additional opinions from Ibn Ma'īn, ranging from laysa bi-dhāk, yuktabu hadīthuhu, and that he got angry when asked about 'Amr and said "What can I say about him? The Imams (of hadīth) transmit from him!" Al-Jarh wa l-ta'dīl, VI, 238-9. Ibn Hanbal is reported to have said: "I do not know of anyone who has rejected (taraka) the hadīth of 'Amr b. Shu'ayb → his father → his grandfather" although he was unsure about the reliability of 'Amr's other reports; Mawsū'at aqwāl al-Imām Ahmad, III, 99-100. Ibn Hibbān observes that Ibn Hanbal, Ibn al-Madīnī, and Ibn Rāhawayh all consider 'Amr's hadīth authoritative (yahtanūna bi-hadīthihi); ibid. (extracted from Kītāb al-majrūhūn, II, 71).

TK 2001, VIII, 464. The other three huffaz mentioned by al-Thawri are 'Abd al-Malik b. Abī Sulaymān and Ismā'īl b. Abī Khālid of Kufa, and 'Āsim al-Ahwal of Basra. Ibn Sa'd grades Yahyā thiqa-thabt-hujja, Ibn Ma'īn evaluates him as thiqa and Ibn Hanbal calls him both thiqa and "among the most reliable people" (min athbat al-nās); TK 2001, VII, 517-8, al-Dārimī, Tārīkh, 44, and Mawsū'at aqwāl al-Imām Ahmad, IV, 120-2. Ibn Sa'd reports that Yahyā ordered Mālik to write 100 hadīth that the latter had heard from al-Zuhrī just prior to Yahvā's departure for Iraq. Mālik's student (and Ibn Sa'd's informant) Ismā'īl al-Uwaysī was surprised that Yahyā merely took the hadīth from Mālik without any oral verification. Mālik's reply to his student's incredulity was that "[Yaḥyā] was above that due to his deep understanding (of Islam)" (fa-qultu li-Mālik: fa-mā qara'ahā 'alayka wa lā qara'tahā 'alayhi? qāla: lā kāna afqahu min dhālika); ibid., 518.

found among Ibn Sa'd's most highly decorated hadīth scholars in the previous chapter, and is reported by Ibn 'Awn to have been the most knowledgeable student of the hadīth of Ibn Sīrīn.74 Ibn Ma'in preferred Dāwūd b. Abī Hind (d. 139/756) to the qādī 'Āṣim b. Sulayman al-Ahwal (d. 141/758), both of whom are reported to have been reliable transmitters who disseminated large quantities of hadith.75 A parallel to the ascetic Medinan Muhammad al-Munkadir can be found in the Basran Sulayman al-Taymī (d. 143/760), a disciple of Qatāda, whom Ibn Sa'd reports would spend entire nights in the mosque with his son and refused to transmit a sahīfa of hadīth from Jābir b. 'Abdullāh that he had not heard from one of his pupils.76 Finally, at the opposite spectrum from Sulayman al-Taymi, we find the wealthy Ibn 'Awn (d. 151/768), a reliable companion of al-Sha'bī, whose critical comments concerning the degree of precision of several major scholars' hadīth transmission have permeated this narrative.77

Ibn Ḥanbal (on the authority of Ḥammād b. Salama) in Mawsū'at aqwāl al-Imām Aḥmad, I, 311. In one report, 'Abdullāh b. Aḥmad mentions that he heard this information from both his father and Ibn Ma'īn. Note that Ibn Ḥanbal preferred Ḥabīb b. al-Shahīd (d. 145/762) to Ḥumayd, whereas Ibn Ma'īn said that they were equal; ibid., I, 312 and Ibn Abī Ḥātim, al-Jarḥ wa l-ta'dīl, III, 219. Abū Ḥātim reports that 'Ubayd Allāh b. 'Umar, Yaḥyā b. Sa'īd [al-Anṣārī], Sufyān al-Thawrī, Mālik, and Shu'ba ႃuransmitted ḥadīth from him; ibid..

⁷⁴ Al-Bukhārī, al-Tārīkh al-kabīr, I.1 (Hyderabad, 1361-2), 409-10. Ibn Ḥanbal includes 83 Ibn 'Umar aṭrāf from Nāfi' on the authority of Ayyūb in the Musnad, as well as 24 Ibn 'Abbās aṭrāf from 'Ikrima. Ibn Sa'd reports that some of Ayyūb's pupils were surprised that he transmitted from 'Ikrima, to which he replied "I do not accuse him [of weakness]" lā attahimihu; TK 2001, VII, 284. Ibn Ḥanbal reports essentially the same information; Mawsū'at aqwāl al-Imām Ahmad, III, 25-6.

⁷⁵ Al-Dūrī, Tārīkh, II, 166; TK 2001, IX 254-5. 'Āṣim served as qādī of al-Madā'in during the reign of al-Manṣūr and was reported to have been one of Sufyān al-Thawrī's "four huffāz;" see ibid., VIII, 464. Ibn Sa'd and Ibn Ma'īn evaluate Dāwūd as thiqa and Ibn Hanbal grades him as thiqa thiqa; Mawsū'at aqwāl al-Imām Ahmad, I, 353-4. 'Āṣim receives the grade of thiqa from these three scholars as well; TK 2001, TX, 255 and 321, al-Dārimī, Tārīkh, 161, and Mawsū'at aqwāl al-Imām Ahmad, II, 202-3.

⁷⁶ TK 2001, IX, 251–2. Azami credits Sulaymān b. Qays al-Yashkurī (d. 70–80) as the source of this ṣaḥīfa; Studies in Early Ḥadīth Literature, 52–3. Ibn Sa'd, Ibn Ma'īn, and Ibn Ḥanbal all grade Sulaymān al-Taymī as thiqa; TK 2001, IX, 251–2, al-Dārimī, Tārīkh, 49, and Mawsū'at aqwāl al-Imām Aḥmad, II, 94–5. For more information, see above. III.2.

⁷⁷ TK 2001, IX, 261-8. Ibn Sa'd and Ibn Ma'īn grade Ibn 'Awn as *thiqa*, and the former remarks that he was 'Uthmānī; *ibid.* and al-Dārimī, *Tārīkh*, 57. Ibn al-Madīnī considered Ayyūb and Ibn 'Awn superior to their Basran contemporaries Hishām b. Hassān, Khālid al-Hadhdhā', 'Āṣim al-Aḥwal, and Salama b. 'Alqama; Ibn Abī Hātim, *al-Jarḥ wa l-ta'dīl*, V, 130-1. For more information, see above, III.2.

The burden of hadīth transmission in Kufa during this time fell upon a small group of men, three of whom cultivated identifiable bodies of disciples.⁷⁸ The most senior of these scholars was Abū Ishāq 'Amr b. 'Abdullāh al-Sabī'ī (d. 127/745).79 His circle of pupils included most of the major Kufans of the following generation, such as Sufyān al-Thawrī, Abū Bakr b. 'Ayyāsh, his own son Yūnus, and the Basran Shu'ba. 80 Mansūr b. al-Mu'tamir (d. 132/750), a pupil of Abū Wā'il and Ibrāhīm al-Nakha'ī,81 was favored by Ibn Ma'īn over Oatāda and declared to be more reliable in his transmission than al-Hakam b. 'Utayba (d. 115/733).82 A particularly famous pupil of Mansūr was the Khurāsānī ascetic al-Fudayl b. 'Iyād, who traveled to Kufa explicitly for the purpose of studying with him, prior to his retirement in Mecca.⁸³ Sulayman b. Mihran al-A'mash (d. 148/765) achieved prominence as an expert reciter of the Qur'anic reading of Ibn Mas'ūd, as well as a pupil of the Medinan transplant Abū Sālih Dhakwān. Ibn Ma'īn cautions us, however, that al-A'mash's hadīth from Anas and Ibn Abī Awfā were not actually heard from these

⁷⁸ Ibn Sa'd recognizes only eleven Kufans of this time as transmitters of 'many hadīth', two of whom he grades as weak. These two weak transmitters are Ḥammād b. Abī Sulaymān and Abū Sahl Muḥammad b. Sālim; TK 2001, VIII, 451, 480. Note that Ibn Ma'īn declares that Ḥammād was trustworthy, at least in al-Dārimī's recension; al-Dārimī, Tārīkh, 58. The general evaluation of Ibn Ḥanbal is that Ḥammād was 'mediocre in hadīth' (muqārib al-hadīth) and that only the reports transmitted by experts such as Sufyān al-Thawrī and Shu'ba should be considered; Mawsū'at aquāl al-Imām Aḥmad, I, 302–7. Note that there is a lone report from al-Marrūdhī that Ibn Ḥanbal graded Ḥammād as thiqa; ibid., I, 305.

⁷⁹ Al-Bukhārī reports that Abū Ishāq heard many hadīth from al-Rāfi' b. Khadīj and Ibn 'Umar; al-Tārīkh al-kabīr, III.2, 347–8. Ibn Abī Ḥātim provides an extensive list of his teachers, many of whom are saḥāba, such as Ibn 'Abbās, Zayd b. Arqam, al-Barā' b. 'Āzib, Ibn al-Zubayr, and Mu'āwiya; al-J̄arḥ wa l-ta'dīl, VI, 241–2.

⁸⁰ Al-Dārimī, *Tārīkh*, 59-60.

⁸¹ Al-Bukhārī, al-Tārīkh al-kabīr, IV.1, 346.

⁸² Al-Dūrī, *Tārīkh*, I, 194 and 326. Ibn Ma'īn declared Manṣūr to be the Kufan equivalent of Ayyūb al-Sakhtiyānī, and Ibn Sa'd declared him to be thiqa-ma'mūn rafī' 'ālī; TK 2001, VIII, 456. Ibn Ḥanbal, however, preferred al-Ḥakam to Manṣūr with respect to transmission from Ibrāhīm al-Nakha'ī, although he notes that Manṣūr was more accurate than al-A'mash; Mawsū'at aqwāl al-Imām Aḥmad, III, 401-3. He also states that nobody except Ibn Abī Najīḥ has transmitted more material from Mujāhid than Mansūr; ibid., III, 403.

⁸³ TK 2001, VIII, 61. An interesting report, this time from Ibn Ma'īn, is that Manṣūr's pupil, Jarīr b. Ḥāzim, would copy his hadīth on a slate, and then erase them and write more complete versions of the same reports from his other teacher, al-Mughīra b. Miqsam al-Dabbī (d. 136/753); al-Dūrī, Tānīth, I, 355. Ibn Sa'd evaluated both Jarīr and al-Mughīra as thiqa and includes them among those who transmitted 'many hadīth'; TK 2001, VIII, 456 (al-Mughīra); IX, 278 (Jarīr).

two men (*mursal*), since he merely saw them in his youth and did not attend their classes.⁸⁴ Despite many irregularities in his vast corpus of *ḥadīth*, al-A'mash exhibited a profound influence upon two generations of scholars, namely that of Sufyān al-Thawrī and Shu'ba, and that of Wakī' b. al-Jarrāḥ. Finally, Ismā'īl b. Abī Khālid (d. 146/763) and 'Abd al-Malik b. Abī Sulaymān (d. 145/762) both earned the distinction from their pupil Sufyān al-Thawrī as being among the "four *ḥuffāz*" of their era.⁸⁵

Three major scholars graced the sacred city of Mecca during the transition from Umayyad to 'Abbāsid sovereignty in the central lands of Islam.⁸⁶ Abū l-Zubayr Muḥammad b. Muslim transmitted a vast array of hadīth from the Medinan saḥābī Jābir b. 'Abdullāh that achieved inclusion in the Musnad of Ibn Ḥanbal.⁸⁷ While Shu'ba's notorious distaste for Abū l-Zubayr is dutifully recorded by Ibn Sa'd, the latter, along with Ibn Ma'in and Ibn Ḥanbal, considered him to be a reliable transmitter.⁸⁸ The second prominent hadīth scholar of this time in Mecca was 'Amr b. Dīnār (d. 126/744), who transmitted a modest amount of hadīth from Jābir b. 'Abdullāh found in Ibn Ḥanbal's Musnad,⁸⁹ as well as reports on the authority of Abū Hurayra from Abū Ṣāliḥ.⁹⁰ 'Amr's prestige may have been tempered by the fact that he did not actually hear directly the hadīth he transmitted on the authority of al-Barā' b. 'Āzib,⁹¹ and by his star-pupil's

84 Al-Dūrī, Tārīkh, I, 241.

observation that he transmitted hadīth imprecisely.⁹² The third major Meccan scholar of this time was Ibn Jurayj (d. 150/767), a pupil of 'Aṭā', Abū l-Zubayr, and 'Amr and one of the earliest composers of a book arranged according to legal topics.⁹³ Ibn Jurayj's hadīth were praised by Ibn Hanbal, who declared that they were equal to those of his illustrious younger contemporary Mālik.⁹⁴

We have arrived at the midway point in the chains of the vast majority of isnāds of reports collected by Ibn Sa'd, Ibn Ma'īn, and Ibn Hanbal. The greater part of the hadīth-transmitters whom we have encountered thus far either heard directly from the Prophet Muhammad or from a sahābī, and thus would have had little need for an isnād in order to identify the sources for their hadīth. The logical starting place for the isnād is during the lifetime of the scholars whom we have just encountered, the generation of al-Zuhrī, Ayyūb al-Sakhtiyānī, al-A'mash, and 'Amr b. Dīnār, some of whose pupils requested that they identify their sources for certain reports.95 These pupils were of the generation of Shuba and Sufyān al-Thawrī, men who, as I argued in the fourth chapter, initiated the art of hadīth criticism and who expressed keen interest in isnāds. If my hypotheses are correct, the birth date of the isnad would fall, at the latest, around the year 100/718, during the heyday of the generation who passed away between 120-150/738-767.96 While it is conceivable

⁸⁵ ŢK 2001, VIII, 464. Ibn Ḥanbal states that Ismā'īl was more reliable than the Basran Dāwūd b. Abī Ḥind and that he is the best source for al-Sha'bī's teachings; Maussī'at aquāl al-Imām Aḥmad, I, 100–3. Ibn Ḥanbal grades 'Abd al-Malik as thiqa hāfiz; ibid., II, 379–80. Ibn Ma'īn states that Ismā'īl is thiqa and more knowledgeable of al-Shabī's teachings than Ibn 'Awn; Ibn Abī Ḥātim, al-Jarh wa l-ta'dīl. II, 175–6. Note that Ibn Abī Ḥātim includes a variant of Sufyān al-Thawrī's "four hufāz" report on the authority of Ibn al-Mubārak that only includes "three huffāz": Ismā'īl, 'Abd al-Malik, and Yahyā b. Sa'īd al-Ansārī; ibid., II, 174.

⁸⁶ Ibn Sa'd identifies only seven Meccans of this period as transmitters of 'many hadīth', all of whom he evaluates as thiqa: Abū l-Zubayr Muḥammad b. Muslim, 'Amr b. Dīnār, Humayd b. Qays al-A'raj, 'Ubayd Allāh b. Abī Yazīd, 'Abdullāh b. Abī Najīh, Ibrāhīm b. Maysara, and Ismā'īl b. Kathīr.

⁸⁷ Abū l-Zubayr's 255 aṭrāf from Jābir represent 43% of the latter's total corpus

⁸⁸ TK 2001. VIII, 42; al-Dārimī, Tārīkh, 197; Mawsū'at aqwāl al-Imām Aḥmad, III, 311.

⁸⁹ Twenty-one aṭrāf from Jābir found in the Musnad were transmitted by 'Amr. 90 TK 2001, VIII, 40. See also Motzki, The Origins of Islamic Turisprudence, 262-8.

⁹¹ Al-Dūrī, Tānkh, I, 91. Ibn Ma'īn also reports praise of 'Amr from the latter's contemporary, Qur'ānic exegete and prolific hadīth-transmitter, Ibn Abī Najīh; ibid.

^{1, 87.} This report is also transmitted by 'Abdullāh b. Ahmad b. Hanbal; *Mawsū'at aqwāl al-Imām Ahmad*, III, 95.

⁹² TK 2001, VIII, 41. This report comes from Ibn 'Uyayna, whom Ibn Sa'd met in Mecca. Ibn Hanbal also mentions this report in 'Abdullāh's 'Ilal; see Mawsū'at aqwāl al-Imām Ahmad, III, 95.

⁹³ Harald Motzki has argued that Ibn Jurayj's book can be extracted from 'Abd al-Razzāq's Muṣannaf, since over a quarter of 'Abd al-Razzāq's book consists of reports transmitted by Ibn Jurayj. Motzki describes Ibn Jurayj's book as neither a hadīth book, nor a fiqh book, but, rather, "a work of Tradition in the broader sense than as a legal codex;" The Origins of Islamic Jurisprudence, 16. For a biography of Ibn Jurayj, see ibid., 268–85.

⁹⁴ Maussū'at aquvāl al-Imām Aḥmad, II, 381-6. Ibn Sa'd and Ibn Ma'īn also grade him as thiqa; TK 2001, VIII, 53-4 and Ibn Abī Ḥātim, al-Jarḥ wa l-ta'dīl, V, 356-8. Ibn al-Madīnī considers Ibn Jurayj's hadīth from Nāfi' to be as reliable as those of Mālik from Nāfi'; ibid., V, 357. For more critical evaluations, see Motzki, The Origins of Islamic Jurisprudence, 275-81.

⁹⁵ For two such examples of this practice found in 'Abd al-Razzāq's Muşannaf, see The Origins of Islamic Jurisprudence, 119, 122, and 152. The large number of defective isnāds in the early sources would seem to argue against the widespread practice of isnād-examination.

⁹⁶ This is the date selected by Juynboll, albeit for different reasons; see above, VIII.1.

that $isn\bar{a}ds$ were used by the first generation of $t\bar{a}bi^s\bar{u}n$, as an oft quoted report by Ibn Sīrīn suggests, ⁹⁷ their wholesale employment would not have been *necessary* until the generation of compilers who flourished during the end of the Umayyad period, since most of the scholars of this time would have been merely the second or third names in each chain of transmitters. ⁹⁸

A second significant transformation to be witnessed among the men of the generation that experienced the transition between the Umayyad and 'Abbāsid regimes was the beginnings of a split between jurists and hadīth scholars. The fact that thirteen of the sixteen sahāba identified by Abū Ishāq al-Shīrāzī (d. 476/1083) as experts in Islamic law (figh) have appeared in our narrative as major hadīth-transmitters indicates the tight bond between experts in law and hadīth from the outset of Islamic history. All seven of the Medinan fuqahā' whom Abū Ishāq identifies among the first generation of the tābi'ūn are reported by Ibn Sa'd to have transmitted 'many hadīth' and were held to be reliable. This same story is repeated for at least eight of the second-generation Medinan jurists as well. Basran jurists

identified by Abū Ishāq include al-Hasan al-Basrī, Ibn Sīrīn, Oatāda, Ayyūb, Ibn 'Awn, as well as several other tābi'ūn who transmitted a significant quantity of hadīth and were considered reliable transmitters. 102 Things in Kufa, however, were different. One of the six companions of Ibn Mas'ūd had a mixed reputation, and only three of them were reported explicitly by Ibn Sa'd to have transmitted 'many hadīth'. 103 Ibn Sa'd does not provide any quantitative information about the three jurists of Abū Ishāq al-Shīrāzī's second tabaga of Kufans, although it was possible to demonstrate the significant role of at least one of them in my analysis of Ibn Hanbal's Musnad. 104 The third tabaga, however, breaks the harmonious norm of jurist/ reliable-hadīth-transmitters, and, instead, includes Hammād b. Abī Sulaymān, a weak transmitter of many hadīth, and Ibn Shubrama, a reliable transmitter of very few hadīth. 105 While Ibn Shubrama exerted a major influence upon the prolific hadith-transmitter and jurist Sufvan al-Thawrī, 106 Hammād b. Abī Sulaymān was the primary teacher of Abū Hanīfa, eponym of one of the four Sunnī madhhabs, who was not considered by Ibn Sa'd's generation to have been much of a hadīth-transmitter. 107 It appears from this analysis that the split between

107 See above, note 81.

⁹⁷ See Juynboll, Muslim Tradition, 17–8 and Azami, Studies in Early Hadīth Literature, 213. This quote is found as early as in the Introduction to Muslim's Saḥīḥ; Saḥīḥ Muslim bi-sharh al-Nawawī, I, 78.

⁹⁸ Motzki's conclusions are worth quoting in this regard: "If one investigates more precisely where the weakness of the *isnāds* lie, it becomes clear that except in the rarest of cases the responsibility lies not with Ibn Jurayj's sources, but with their informants; that is, the discontinuities usually date from the first century. This conclusion fits the observation made above, that at this time the use of *isnād* was not yet customary. This explains the weaknesses of *isnāds* with the scholars of the second half of the first/seventh century;" *The Origins of Islamic Jurisprudence*, 241.

⁹⁹ Abū Ishāq al-Shīrāzī, *Tabaqāt al-fuqahā*, 45–50. The sahāba who excelled both at fiqh and hadīth were 'Umar, 'Uthmān, 'Alī, Ibn Mas'ūd, Abū Mūsā l-Ash'arī, Ubayy b. Ka'b, Mu'ādh b. Jabal, Abū l-Dardā', 'Ā'isha, Ibn 'Abbās, Ibn 'Umar, and 'Abdullāh b. 'Amr b. al-'Ās. Those who were not prolific hadīth-transmitters were Abū Bakr, Zayd b. Thābit, and Ibn al-Zubayr.

¹⁰⁰ Abū Ishāq, *Tābaqāt al-fuqahā*, 53-61. These seven *fuqahā* were Sa'īd b. al-Musayyab, 'Urwa b. al-Zubayr, al-Qāsim b. Muḥammad, Abū Bakr b. al-Ḥārith b. Hishām (d. 94/713), 'Ubayd Allāh b. 'Abdullāh b. 'Utba (d. 102/720), Khārija b. Zayd b. Thābit, and Sulaymān b. Yasār.

¹⁰¹ Abū Isḥāq, Tabaqāt al-fuqahā', 62–6. These eight men were 'Alī b. al-Ḥusayn b. 'Alī, al-Zuhrī, 'Umar b. 'Abd al-'Azīz, Muḥammad b. al-Ḥusayn b. 'Alī, 'Abd al-Raḥmān b. al-Qāsim b. Muḥammad, Rabī'a al-Ra'y, Abū l-Zinād, and Yaḥyā b. Sa'īd al-Anṣārī. Note also that the Meccan jurists 'Aṭā', Mujāhid, Ibn Abī Mulayka, 'Amr b. Dīnār, and Ibn Abī Najīḥ are also all major reliable hadīth-transmitters. The only exception was 'Ikrima, who transmitted a large quantity of material, but whose authority was questioned by Ibn Sa'd, although it has been shown that he was vindicated ultimately by Ibn Ma'īn (in the al-Dārimī recension) and al-Bukhārī; see above, note 58.

¹⁰² Abū Isḥāq, *Tabaqāt al-fuqahā*, 87–91. Other reliable prolific *ḥadīth* scholars of Basra who were also jurists include Abū Qilāba, Abū l-ʿĀliya, Yūnus b. ʿUbayd, and Humayd al-Tawīl.

¹⁰³ Abū İshāq, *Tabaqāt al-fuqahā*, 79–86. Ibn Sa'd declared al-Ḥārith al-A'war to be weak, while Ibn Ma'īn said that he was 'not bad', and Ibn Ḥanbal quoted al-Sha'bī calling him a liar; TK 2001, VIII, 288, al-Dūrī, *Tārīkh*, I, 265 and *Mawsū'at aqwāl al-Imām Ahmad*, I, 213–4. The three reliable prolific companions of Ibn Mas'ūd were 'Alqama, al-Aswad, and Masrūq; the two remaining ones were 'Ubayda b. 'Amr and Shurayh al-Qādī.

¹⁰¹ It was obvious from the analysis of the aṭrāf of the Musnad of Ibn Ḥanbal that Saʿīd b. Jubayr played a major role in the dissemination of Ibn ʿAbbās' hadīth; see above, note 58. As for Abū Isḥāq's remaining two jurists, I assume that both Ibrāhīm al-Nakhaʿī and al-Shaʿbī played at least moderately important roles in hadīth transmission due to the existence of circles of hadīth-friendly pupils identified by Ibn Maʿīn in al-Dārimī's Tārīkh, as well as the fact that their hadīth is included in all six of the canonical Sunnī books.

¹⁰⁵ Only one of Abū Ishaq's five jurists fits the previous mold of expertise in fight and hadīth, namely al-Ḥakam b. 'Utayba. Ibn Sa'd provides neither qualitative nor quantitative grades for two of the jurists in this tabaqa: Ḥabīb b. Abī Thābit and the qāḍī Muḥammad b. 'Abd al-Raḥmān b. Abī Laylā. Both Ibn Ma'īn and Ibn Ḥanbal are reported to have graded Ḥabīb as thiqa; Ibn Abī Ḥātim, al-Jarh wa l-ta'dīl, III, 107–8 and Mawsū'at aqwāl al-Imām Aḥmad, I, 220–2. Ibn Ḥanbal reports that Yaḥyā l-Qaṭṭān declared Ibn Abī Laylā to be weak and he himself indicates a preference for his figh over his 'inconsistent' hadīth (fīhi idṭirāb); al-Jarh wa l-ta'dīl, VII, 323. Ibn Ma'īn grades Ibn Abī Laylā as laysa bi-dhāk; ibid.

¹⁰⁶ Al-Thawrī identifies Ibn Shubrama and Ibn Abī Laylā as his two primary teachers of figh; TK 2001, IX, 247 and Mawsū'at aqwāl al-Imām Ahmad, III, 285.

jurists and hadith scholars originated in Kufa around the end of the first/eight century and, only later, spread to Medina and Baghdad.

A final problem that I must address is Abū Ḥanīfa, who flourished during the period under discussion, because he was a weak transmitter of *hadīth* in the opinions of Ibn Sa'd and his contemporaries and, consequently, would not have been considered a religious authority in the eyes of the first Sunnīs of the third/ninth century according to my arguments. ¹⁰⁸ In other words, was Abū Ḥanīfa considered a Sunnī by the third/ninth century *ḥadīth* scholars? While Ibn Ḥanbal transmits several highly negative reports from his predecessors about Abū Ḥanīfa, ¹⁰⁹ there is a fascinating report in al-Dūrī's *Tārīkh* in

109 Maussū'at aqwāl al-Imām Aḥmad, IV, 16-21. The chorus of anti-Abū Ḥanīfa hadīth-folk found in these reports includes Mālik (Abū Ḥanīfa "duped [kāda] the religion"), Ibn Mahdī, Ḥammād b. Salama, Sharīk, and Ḥafṣ b. Ghiyāth; even Sufyān al-Thawrī is reported to have encouraged Abū Ḥanīfa to repent on two

which Ibn Ma'īn, in a candid tone, remarks "I will not lie before God—it is likely that we heard a legal opinion of Abū Hanīfa that we found to be good, and so we adopted it."110 The term used to describe Abū Hanīfa by both Ibn Sa'd and Ibn Outayba is sāhib al-ra'y, an expression that stands in a clear contrast to the expression sāhib sunna that was examined briefly in the previous chapter. Very few men are identified by either Ibn Sa'd or Ibn Outavba as belonging to the ashāb al-ra'y, although it is significant to note that only Ibn Outavba includes men who excelled in hadīth transmission in this group. 111 Since Ibn Sa'd does not express his opinions as to the relationship of the term sāhib al-ra'y to sāhib sunna anywhere and includes Abū Hanīfa in both the fourth tabaga of Kufans as well as the men of Baghdad, it seems safe to assume that he considered this famous jurist to have been a member, albeit unreliable and non-authoritative, in the greater project of hadīth transmission that lay at the heart of the third/ninth century articulation of Sunnī Islam.

¹⁰⁸ A study of the problems surrounding the authentic teachings of Abū Hanīfa can be found in van Ess, Theologie und Gesellschaft, I, 183-212. See also U. F. 'Abd-Allāh's entry "Abu Ḥanīfa" in Encyclopaedia Iranica, I (London, 1982), 295-301. 'Abd-Allah states that "the disputes between Abu Hanīfa and the proponents of Hadith pertained primarily to his rejection of isolated Hadith (ahādīth al-āhād)," observes that al-Khatīb al-Baghdādī was chastised two centuries after his death by Ibn Khallikān for having included "slanderous" reports by hadīth critics in his biographical notice for Abū Hanīfa in Tānkh Baghdād, and hypothesizes that "Abū Hanīfa seems in general to have always been highly esteemed by the majority of the Muslim community"; ibid., 300 and 296. He does not mention Ibn Hibban's observation that Abū Hanīfa was not skilled at hadīth (lam yakun al-hadīthu ṣināʿatahu), made errors in 120 of the 130 hadith he transmitted, and was therefore not an authority with regard to reports (akhbār); Ibn Hibbān, Kītāb al-majrūhīn, III, 63. Ibn Hibbān also criticizes Abū Hanīfa for being a proselytizer of the Murii'a and includes several reports of his detractors, including one which makes reference to al-Humaydī who, while reading a book called Refutation of Abū Hanīfa in the Masjid al-Harām, refused to mention Abū Ḥanīfa's name because of the sanctity of the location; ibid., III, 64-73. 'Abd-Allāh also ignores Ibn 'Adī's collection of predominantly hostile reports (but which does record an anecdote that Shu'ba was disposed favorably to Abū Hanīfa) that includes Ibn Abī Dāwūd's observation that the Imāms of the major regions-Ayyūb al-Sakhtiyānī, Sufyān al-Thawrī, Mālik, al-Layth b. Sa'd, al-Awzā'ī, and Ibn al-Mubārak—all had issues (takallama filni) with Abū Hanīfa; al-Kāmil fi du'afā' al-rijāl, VII, 2476. Ibn 'Adī's personal verdiet is that the majority of Abū Hanīfa's hadīth have errors of a variety of types, and that only ten of his three hundred hadith are sound, largely due to the fact that he was not one of the hadīth scholars (ahl al-hadīth); ibid., VII, 2479. Even Abū Nu'aym al-Isbahānī has negative things to say about Abū Hanīfa in his short book of weak transmitters; Abū Nu'avm, Kītāb al-du'afā', 194. He appears to be particularly disappointed by Abū Hanīfa's refusal to abandon his belief in the 'created' Our'ān, as well as his "many errors and inaccuracies"; qāla bi-khalq al-Qur'ān wa-stutība min kalāmihi l-radī'i ghayra marratin kathīr al-khata' wa l-awhām.

occasions. Al-'Uqaylī quotes Ibn Ḥanbal's opinion of Abū Ḥanīfa as a liar, da'īf, and that his hadīth should not be mentioned; ibid., IV, 19. In Tārīth Baghdād, Sufyān al-Thawrī is reported by Ibn Ḥanbal to have described Abū Ḥanīfa as "neither trustworthy nor secure" (ghayr thiqa wa ghayr ma'mūn), and Ibn Ḥanbal himself is claimed to have stated that Abū Ḥanīfa was worse (ashaddu 'alā l-muslimīn) than 'Amr b. 'Ubayd, a founder of the Mu'tazila, because he had disciples (lahu aṣḥāb); ibid., IV, 20-1.

¹¹⁰ lā nakdhibu llāha rubbamā sami'nā l-sha'ya min ra'y Abī Ḥanīfa fa-staḥsannāhu fa-akhadhnā bihi; al-Dūrī, Tārīkh, II, 220. This same quote is put into the mouth of Yaḥyā l-Qaṭṭān by Ibn Ma'īn in Tārīkh Baghdād, XIII, 345. Ibn Ma'īn appears to have been less hostile to Abū Ḥanīfa than Ibn Ḥanbal and Ibn Sa'd, as al-Khaṭīb al-Baghdādī reports a variety of opinions attributed to him in which he insists that Abū Ḥanīfa was too noble to lie, that he was sadūq, that his hadīth should not be written, and, in a few reports, that he was thiqa; Tārīkh Baghdād, XIII, 421–2. Note also the report cited from Tadhkirat al-huffāz that Wakī gave fatwas according to the madhhab of Abū Ḥanīfa; see above III.3, note 22.

[&]quot;II The aṣhāb al-ra'y and/or pupils of Abū Ḥanīfa in al-Ṭabaqāt al-kabīr are Abū Ḥanīfa, Abū Yūsuf, Asad b. 'Amr al-Bajalī, 'Āfiya b. Yazīd al-Awdī, al-Shaybānī, Yūsuf b. Abī Yūsuf, al-Ḥusayn b. Ibrāhīm, Bishr b. al-Walīd al-Kindī, al-Mu'āllā b. Manṣūr, and al-Naḍr b. Muḥammad al-Marwazī, see Melchert, "How Ḥanafism came to Originate in Kufa and Traditionalism in Medina," 326. Ibn Qutayba names Ibn Abī Laylā, Abū Ḥanīfa, Rabī'a al-Ra'y, Zufar b. al-Hudhayl, Abū Yūsuf, and Muḥammad b. al-Ḥasan al-Shaybānī, along with the master hadīth scholars al-Awzā'ī, Sufyān al-Thawrī, and Mālik; al-Ma'ārif, 496–99.

VIII.5 The demise of Medina and the rise of Iraq: The generation who died 150–180/767–796

Five major trends can be observed in the development of hadīth scholarship during the first generation of scholars who spent the better part of their adult lives under 'Abbāsid rule. The first of these is the promulgation of systematically organized books, a topic mentioned in both the third and fourth chapters of this study, and that was supported by 'Alī b. al-Madīnī's oft-cited list of "those who composed books (aṣnāf)" in his three-part outline of master hadīth scholars. 112 The second trend, which I discussed in detail in the fourth chapter, was the dawn of both hadīth criticism, due to men such as Sufyān al-Thawrī, and hadīth-transmitter criticism, by the likes of Shu'ba and Mālik. The third trend during this period was the near-total collapse of quality hadīth scholarship in Medina due to several diverse factors that require investigation. The fourth change was a deepening of Kufan hadīth scholarship, due to the labors of the industrious pupils of Abū Ishāg al-Sabī'ī, Mansūr, and al-A'mash. A final trend was the continuous rise of Basran hadīth scholarship, that was propelled largely by the younger pupils of Qatāda, as well as by those of Ayyūb al-Sakhtiyānī. It will be clear from this section that shortly after the middle of the second century the twin cities of Iraq had eclipsed thoroughly the original capital of hadīth scholarship in the Hijāz, and that the reasons for this transformation had less to do with the greater 'Abbasid investment in Iraq and more to do with the internal dynamics of the hadīth-folk themselves.

What happened to Medina, home of Abū Hurayra, Sa'īd b. al-Musayyab, and al-Zuhrī? It is tempting to suggest that the failed revolt of Muḥammad b. al-Ḥasan al-Nafs al-Zakiyya (145/762) was a reason for this precipitous decline in hadīth scholarship, but this is untenable when we consider revolts, such as the Battle of Ḥarra (63/683), that did not make a dent in religious scholarship, despite a

terrible loss of life. 113 Furthermore, al-Nass al-Zakiyya's brother raised a revolt in Basra that was quelled, while, simultaneously, Basran hadīth scholarship reached unprecedented heights. The construction of Baghdad, begun during the reign of al-Manṣūr, is another possible reason for this decline, and, while certain prominent Medinans, such as Ibn Isḥāq and his only Medinan pupil, Ibrāhīm b. Sa'd, were tempted to relocate there, the number of emigrants would have hardly necessitated a collapse in scholarship. A close examination of Ibn Sa'd's al-Ṭabaqāt al-kabīr, as well as al-Dārimī's Tārīkh, suggests that the probable reasons for the fall of Medina lie in the rapid increase of weak Medinan transmitters and the decision of the vast majority of al-Zuhrī's pupils not to settle in the City of the Prophet.

An analysis of the members of the generation of Mālik b. Anas in al-Tabaqāt al-kabīr reveals the bleak landscape of Medinan hadīth scholarship during the early 'Abbāsid period. Ibn Sa'd identifies a mere ten men as having transmitted 'many hadīth' in this tabaqa. He evaluates three of these men as da'īf, one of them as 'non-authoritative', and describes 'Abd al-Raḥmān b. Zayd b. Aslam as da'īf jiddan. 114 Two men receive the lackluster grade sālih, 115 and only 'Abd al-'Azīz b. 'Abdullāh b. Mājishūn, Sulaymān b. Bilāl, and Ibrāhīm b. Sa'd receive the grade thiqa. 116 Three additional Medinan contemporaries of Mālik who transmitted a small amount of hadīth were evaluated by Ibn Sa'd as unreliable. 117 Even 'Abdullāh b. 'Umar b. Ḥafṣ (d. 171/787), a prominent transmitter from Nāfī' of Ibn 'Umar's hadīth who

This presentation, along with copious references, can be found above in IV.2.1. The men identified by 'Alī b. al-Madīnī as the first book compilers are Mālik, Ibn Isḥāq, Ibn Jurayj, Ibn 'Uyayna, Sa'īd b. Abī 'Arūba, Ḥammād b. Salama, Abū 'Awāna, Shu'ba, Ma'mar, Sufyān al-Thawrī, al-Awzā'ī, and Hushaym b. Bashīr. All of these men, except Hushaym and Ibn 'Uyayna, are found in the period currently under discussion. Note also al-Tirmidhī's list of the earliest compilers, cited above III.2, note 14.

Many prominent hadīth scholars, most of whom were far from the revolt of Nass al-Zakiyya, may have supported it; see Zaman, Religion and Politics under the Early 'Abbāsids, 73-6.

¹¹⁴ Abū Ma'shar and 'Abd al-Raḥmān b. Abī l-Zinād are graded da'īf; Hishām b. Sa'd al-Khashshāb receives yustad'af, Abū Bakr b. 'Abdullāh b. Muḥammad was graded laysa yuḥtajju bihi; TK 2001, VII, 597, 594, 576, and 582. 'Abd al-Raḥmān b. Zayd's entry can be found in TK 2001, VII, 592. Ibn Ma'īn declared his hadīth to be worthless, and Ibn Ḥanbal also declared him to be weak; al-Dūrī, Tānkh, I, 116 and Mawsū'at aqwāl al-Imām Aḥmad, II, 325-6. Note that Ibn Zayd's exegetical opinions are cited by al-Ṭabarī over 1800 times in his tafsār, see Horst, "Zur Überlieferung im Korankommentar aṭ-Ṭabarīs," 305.

115 These men are 'Abdullāh b. Ja'far b. 'Abd al-Raḥmān and al-Zuhrī's nephew,

¹¹⁵ These men are 'Abdullāh b. Ja'far b. 'Abd al-Raḥmān and al-Zuhrī's nephew, Muḥammad b. 'Abdullāh; TK 2001, VII, 580, 579. Ibn Ma'īn grades the nephew of al-Zuhrī as da'īf, while Ibn Ḥanbal said ṣāliḥ al-ḥadīth in shā'a llāh; al-Dārimī, Tārīkh, 48 and Mawsū'at aqwāl al-Imām Ahmad, III, 281.

¹¹⁶ TK 2001, VII, 593, 589, 582.

These men are Kathīr b. 'Abdullāh b. 'Awf, Yazīd b. 'Iyād, and Saḥbal b. Muḥammad; TK 2001, VII, 591, 598. Ibn Ma'īn evaluates the first two of these men as da'īf; al-Dūrī, Tārīkh, I, 107 and 60.

lived into this period, was considered weak by Ibn Sa'd and Ibn Ḥanbal. 118 While it is not entirely clear why Medinan transmitters of this generation were, on the whole, such a sorry, unreliable lot, it seems more appropriate to put the blame on these individuals rather than any external causes.

Another reason for the decline of Medinan hadīth scholarship, in addition to the preponderance of unreliable transmitters at this time, was the global dispersion of al-Zuhrī's most prominent students, the majority of whom never had any tie to his hometown in the first place. One reason for this dispersion was, without doubt, the fact that al-Zuhrī himself left his home city in order to serve the Umayyad caliphs from 'Umar b. 'Abd al-'Azīz to Hishām, and that he spent much time on his estates outside of Medina. 119 I mentioned in the previous chapter that Ibn Hanbal considered Ma'mar, Yūnus b. Yazīd, and 'Ugayl b. Khālid to have been the most prodigious transmitters of al-Zuhrī's knowledge, and it is significant that the first of these men spent much of his life in the mountainous refuge of San'ā' and the latter two lived in the port city of Ayla. 120 Two other important pupils of al-Zuhrī, al-Layth b. Sa'd and al-Awzā'ī, were natives of Egypt and Syria, and even the youngest major student of his who lived well into the next period of hadīth scholarship, Ibn 'Uyayna, lived in Mecca. Even though a couple of al-Zuhrī's students engaged in questionable practices of hadith transmission, 121 the absence of a core of major Zuhrī pupils in his hometown unquestionably contributed to its qualitative decline during the middle decades of the second century.

Kufa, which has been recognized as a major hadīth center only recently by Western scholarship, 122 flourished in this age with several virtuoso scholars. I have discussed already in the fourth chapter the acumen of Sufyān al-Thawrī at some length, and Ibn Sa'd reports how, during his period of hiding from the Caliph in Basra, Yaḥyā l-Qattan and Ibn Mahdī seized the opportunity to write down al-Thawrī's hadīth. 123 Zuhayr b. Mu'āwiya (d. 173/789), a companion of Abū Ishāq and al-A'mash, was one of four huffāz according to Ibn Ḥanbal, and Sa'īd b. Mansūr is quoted as telling one of his Egyptian pupils "write down Zuhayr's hadīth!" The third Kufan of Ibn Hanbal's four huffāz, Zā'ida b. Qudāma (d. 161/778), was held in higher esteem than Zuhayr by Ibn Ma'īn, 125 and is one of the few men identified by Ibn Sa'd as sāhib sunna wa jamā'a. 126 Ibn Ma'īn considered Isrā'īl b. Yūnus (d. 160/777) to be more reliable than the Kufan $q\bar{a}d\bar{t}$ Sharīk b. 'Abdullāh (d. 177/793),127 who in turn was more reliable than Abū l-Aḥwaṣ Sallām b. Sulaym (d. 179/795). 128 Shaybān b. 'Abd al-Raḥmān

¹¹⁸ TK 2001, VII, 532 and *Mawsū'at aqwāl al-Imām Aḥmad*, II, 268. Note that Ibn Ma'īn considers 'Abdullāh's transmission from Nāfi' as *ṣāliḥ*; al-Dārimī, *Tārīkh*, 151. Thirty-nine *aṭrāf* from 'Abdullāh → Nāfi' → Ibn 'Umar are found in the *Musnad* of Ibn Ḥanbal.

¹¹⁹ Lecker provides a useful overview of these estates; "Biographical Notes of Ibn Shihāb al-Zuhrī," 50–62.

¹²⁰ See above, VII.2, note 55 and VII.3, note 83.

¹²¹ Ibn Ma'ın reports that al-Awzā'ı took a book of Zuhrı material from Muhammad b. al-Walıd al-Zubaydı, the qādī of Ḥims, and transmitted the material as if he had heard it from al-Zuhrı himself; al-Dūrı, Tārīkh, I, 152. Ibn Ma'ın also considers the Zuhrı material handled by Ibn Jurayi to be worthless; al-Dārimı, Tārīkh, 44. Ibn Ḥanbal observes in the 'llal that the Egyptian Yazıd b. Abı Ḥabıb transmitted Zuhrı material from books that he had not actually heard; Mawsū'at aqwāl al-Imām Ahmad, IV, 146. Note that Ibn Sa'd grades Yūnus as 'non-authoritative' and that Ibn Ḥanbal reports that Yaḥyā l-Qaṭṭān rejected (taraka) his ḥadīth; TK 2001, IX, 529; Mawsū'at aqwāl al-Imām Ahmad, IV, 180. Ibn Ma'ın, however, declares Yūnus to be thiqa; al-Dārimı, Tārīkh, 45.

¹²² See Christopher Melchert, "How Ḥanafism came to Originate in Kufa and Traditionalism in Medina."

¹²³ Ibn Sa'd reports that Ibn al-Mubārak, Jarīr b. Ḥāzim, Ḥammād b. Salama, and Ḥammād b. Zayd all heard from al-Thawrī in Basra. Only Abū 'Awāna, apparently, did not attend Sufyān's sessions, because he felt that the latter had insulted him during a pilgrimage; TK 2001, VIII, 492–5.

¹²⁴ TK 2001, VIII, 487-8. Recall that Sa'īd b. Manṣūr was a major Khurāsānī hadīth compiler who ultimately settled in Mecca and was a member of the generation of Ibn Sa'd; see above, V.2.6.

Al-Dūrī, Tārīkh, I, 322. Ibn Ma'īn remarks that Zā'ida checked ('araḍa) his written hadīth with Sufyān al-Thawrī.

¹²⁶ TK 2001, VIII, 499. Note that Zā'ida died, like Ibn al-Mubārak of the next generation, while fighting the Byzantines in Anatolia. Ibn al-Nadīm reports that he composed a Kītāb al-sunan, Kītāb al-qirā'āt, Kītāb al-tafsīr, Kītāb al-zuhd, and Kītāb almanāqib; Fihrist, 282.

¹²⁷ Al-Dūrī, Tārīkh, II, 52. However, according to al-Dārimī, Ibn Ma'īn preferred Sharīk's transmissions from Abū Ishāq al-Sabī'ī to those of Isrā'īl; Ibn Abī Ḥātim, al-Jarh wa l-ta'dīl, IV, 366–7. This is also the opinion of Abū Ḥātim al-Rāzī; ibid.. Ibn Sa'd mentions that Isrā'īl transmitted many hadīth and was thiqa, but that "some people declare him to be weak" (minhum man yuda"fuhu); TK 2001, VIII, 495. Ibn Ma'īn grades him as both sadūq and thiqa and Ibn Ḥanbal grades him as sālih al-hadīth, Shaykh, and thiqa; al-Dārimī, Tārīkh, 59, 72, 235 and Mausū'at aquāl al-Imām Aḥmad, I, 89–91. Sharīk receives the grade of thiqa-ma'mūn, with many errors from Ibn Sa'd, and, with the exception of his old transmissions from Abū Isḥāq, is considered inferior to Isrā'īl by Ibn Ḥanbal as well; TK 2001, VIII, 499–500 and Mausū'at aquāl al-Imām Aḥmad, II, 141–4.

¹²⁸ Al-Dūrī, Tārīkh, I, 271. Ibn Sa'd evaluates Abū l-Aḥwaş as ṣāliḥ and reports that he transmitted many hadīth; TK 2001, VIII, 500. Ibn Hanbal grades him as 'not bad, thiqa' and notes that "he probably made mistakes;" Mawsū'at aqwāl al-Imām Ahmad, II, 125.

(d. 164/781), a reliable, prolific hadīth-transmitter and grammarian, was recruited by Dāwūd b. 'Alī b. 'Abdullāh b. 'Abbās to serve as a royal tutor in Baghdad,¹²⁹ and Ibn Sa'd mentions that the somewhat obscure 'Īsā b. al-Mukhtār heard the muṣannaf of Ibn Abī Laylā, in what is one of the earliest references to a muṣannaf in al-Ṭabaqāt al-kabīr.¹³⁰ One final Kufan of note from this period, Ḥasan b. Ṣāliḥ b. Ḥayy (d. 167/784), synthesized the qualities of legal expertise (fiqh) and sound ḥadīth transmission, a combination that his senior contemporary, Abū Ḥanīfa, seems to have lacked.¹³¹

The companions of Qatāda and Ayyūb, as well as the labors of the critically-minded Shu'ba b. al-Ḥajjāj, elevated the status of Basran hadāth to a level of unequivocal superiority during the first half-century of the 'Abbāsid caliphate. Shu'ba's contribution to Islamic scholarship has been dealt with in much detail in the fourth chapter, and his pupils formed the nucleus of Basran hadāth transmitters for the generation of the teachers of Ibn Sa'd and Ibn Ḥanbal. Hishām al-Dastawā'ī (d. 152/769) was one of the most reliable links between Qatāda, Yaḥyā b. Abī Kathīr, and Abū l-Zubayr, and his own pupils Shu'ba, Yaḥyā l-Qaṭṭān, and Abū Nu'aym al-Faḍl b. Dukayn.¹³²

129 TK 2001, VIII, 498. Ibn Ma'īn grades Shaybān as "reliable with everything" and Ibn Ḥanbal praises him as thabt and superior to al-Awzā'ī with respect to his material from Yaḥyā b. Abī Kathīr due to his sound book (kitāb ṣaḥīḥ); al-Dārimī, Tārīkh, 53 and Mawsū'at aqwāl al-Imām Aḥmad, II, 165–6. I inentioned in the previous chapter that Ibn Ma'īn preferred the tafsīr of Sa'īd b. Abī 'Arūba from Qatāda to the tafsīr of Shaybān; see above VII.2.

130 TK, 2001, VIII, 500. 'Īsā transmitted this muṣannaf to the Kufan qāḍī Bakr b. 'Abd al-Raḥmān (d. 211/826), who transmitted hadīth from it during Ibn Sa'd's lifetime; see also TK 2001, VIII, 530 (Bakr b. 'Abd al-Raḥmān). Both of these men were descendents of the ṣaḥābī Abū Laylā, and Ibn Sa'd did not grade either one of them. 'Īsā does not appear to have an entry in al-Jarḥ wa l-ta'dīl, but both he and Bakr did transmit hadīth found in the Sunans of Abū Dāwūd, al-Nasā'ī, and Ibn Māja; Ibn Ḥajar, Taqrīb, 376 and 65. Bakr was a teacher of Ibn Abī Shayba and Ibn Abī Ḥātm reports that neither his father nor Abū Zur'a would write his hadīth; al-Jarḥ wa l-ta'dīl, II, 389. Note that al-Mizzī does not add any additional information about 'Īsā b. Mukhtār; Tahdhīb al-kamāl, XXIII, 27-8.

131 TK 2001, VIII, 495. Ḥasan lived the last months of his life in hiding from the caliph al-Mahdī with 'Alī b. Zayd b. 'Alī, whose daughter he married. Ibn Ma'īn and Ibn Ḥanbal evaluate him as thiqa; al-Dūrī, Tārīth, I, 247, 325 and Mawsū'at aqwāl al-Imām Ahmad, I, 255-6. Abū Isḥāq al-Shīrāzī also includes Ḥasan among the prominent jurists of Kufa of this period, along with Sufyān al-Thawrī, Sharīk b. 'Abdullāh, and Abū Ḥanīfa; Tabaqāt al-fuqahā', 84-6.

¹³² These names were supplied by al-Bukhārī; al-Tārīkh al-kabīr, IV.2, 198. Ibn Ma'īn reports that Hishām was one of the best transmitters from Qatāda and Yaḥyā b. Abī Kathīr; al-Dūrī, Tārīkh, II, 192 and 143, respectively. Ibn Sa'd grades him thiqa-thabt-hujja, while Ibn Ḥanbal calls him thabt; TK 2001, IX, 279 and Mawsū'at agwāl al-Imām Ahmad, IV, 39-41.

Ma'mar b. Rāshid (d. 153/771), who lived much of his life in Ṣan'ā', was another significant pupil of Qatāda who, according to Abū Hātim al-Rāzī, was the only scholar of his generation to collect hadīth from all six of the leading teachers of his day. 133 Despite a tendency to transmit much that he did not hear from Qatada, Sa'īd b. Abī 'Arūba (d. 156/773) was considered by Ibn Ma'īn and Ibn Ḥanbal to have been one of his premier pupils. 134 Turning to Ayyūb's disciples, we find that Hammad b. Zayd was his most prominent pupil due to his twenty year tenure with him, and that Ibn Ma'in considered 'Abd al-Wārith b. Sa'īd (d. 180/796) equal to Ḥammād and preferable to both 'Abd al-Wāḥid b. Ziyād al-Thaqafī (d. 176/792) and Wuhayb b. Khālid. 135 Finally, Ḥammād b. Salama (d. 167/784), a maternal nephew of Humayd al-Tawīl, was evaluated as the best transmitter from Thābit al-Bunānī by Ibn Ma'īn and Ibn Ḥanbal, 136 and Ibn Sa'd makes explicit references to two transmitters of his books (aṣnāf) in al-Tabagāt al-kabīr. 137

The generation of Mālik, Sufyān al-Thawrī, and Shuʿba introduced the disciplines of hadīth compilation and criticism to Islamic civilization. The dedicated pupils of al-Zuhrī, Abū Ishāq al-Sabīʿī,

Al-Dūrī, Tānīkh, II, 192 and Mawsū'at aqwāl al-Imām Ahmad, II, 39-43. Ibn Sa'd transmits 'Affān b. Muslim's warning that scholars should not trust any hadīth from Qatāda in which Sa'īd does not say haddathanā; TK 2001, IX, 273. Ibn al-Nadīm reports that Sa'īd composed a Kītāb al-sunan; Fihrist, 283. Sa'īd's transmission of Qatāda's exegetical comments on the Qur'ān is cited nearly 3060 times by al-Tabarī and is by far the most frequently cited isnād in his tafsīr, see Horst, 301-2.

135 Al-Dārimī, Tārīkh, 54-5. Ibn Sa'd evaluates 'Abd al-Wārith as thiqa-hujja, 'Abd al-Wāhid as thiqa, and Wuhayb as thiqa-hujja; TK 2001, IX, 288-90. Ibn Hanbal also has positive things to say about these three pupils of Ayyūb; Mawsū'at aqwāl al-Imām Ahmad, II, 392-5 and IV, 103.

136 Al-Dūrī, Tārīkh, II, 207 and Mawsū'at aqwāl al-Imām Ahmad, I, 297–302. In another report in 'Abdullāh's 'Ilal, Ibn Hanbal declares that Hammād has transmitted the most material from three scholars: Thābit, Humayd [al-Ṭawīl], and Hishām b. 'Urwa; ibid.

¹³⁷ TK 2001, IX, 282. These transmitters were 'Ubayd Allāh b. Muḥammad b. Ḥafṣ and Ibrāhīm b. Abī Suwayd. Ibn al-Nadīm mentions a Kūtāb al-sunan attributed to Ḥammād; Fihrist, 283.

138 The evidence for this claim is presented above in chapter four.

¹³³ These six master teachers were al-Zuhrī, 'Amr b. Dīnār, Abū Ishāq al-Sabī'ī, al-A'mash, Qatāda, and Yahyā b. Abī Kathīr; Ibn Abī Ḥātim, al-Jarḥ wa l-ta'dīl, VIII, 256-7. A unique report on the authority of al-Marrūdhī cites Ibn Ḥanbal's evaluation of Ma'mar as thabtun illā anna fī ba'di hadīthihi shay'an; Mawsū'at aqwāl al-Imām Aḥmad, III, 381. Motzki has discovered that about 32% of 'Abd al-Razzāq's Muṣannaf is derived from Ma'mar's reports (excluding the kitāb al-maghāzī and kitāb al-jāmī', which are almost exclusively Ma'mar reports), and that 28% of Ma'mar's material purports to come from al-Zuhrī, 25% from Qatāda, and 11% from Ayyūb; The Origins of Islamic Jurisprudence, 57-9.

al-A'mash, Qatāda, and Avyūb served as both transmitters and organizers of their teachers' vast repertoire of prophetic and post-prophetic material. Ibn al-Nadīm reports no fewer than seven books titled Kītāb al-sunan during this time, all of which appear to have been the earliest systematic efforts to arrange transmitted materials according to legal categories, such as ritual purity, prayer, and inheritance. 139 The collapse of Medina, due largely to the emergence of a significant percentage of prolific, yet unreliable, hadīth transmitters, and the dispersion of al-Zuhrī's disciples, was more than compensated for by the hadīth renaissance of Kufa and the continuous acumen of Basran scholars. It is worth noting that the prominence of hadith scholarship in Basra was accompanied by the absence of the materialization of a school of figh, as Abū Ishāq al-Shīrāzī identifies only Sawwār b. 'Abdullāh al-Qādī and 'Ubayd Allāh b. al-Hasan al-'Anazī (d. 168/784) as jurists in this city during this time. 140 While several scholars, like Mālik, Sufyān al-Thawrī, and Hasan b. Hayy, maintained a high degree of proficiency in both the disciplines of hadith and figh, the divorce between these two branches of Islamic knowledge appears to have become mildly pronounced in the generation prior to al-Shāfi'ī's efforts to negotiate a reconciliation between them. The stage was set by the efforts of the hadīth scholars, some of whose relationships I have just outlined, for the final transformations of hadīth transmission that were realized by their students: the birth of multiple small, remote hadīth centers, the rise of Syria, and the book market of Baghdad.

> VIII.6 The refinement of hadīth compilation and criticism: The generation who died 180-220/796-835

Almost all of the hadīth scholars who flourished under the early 'Abbāsids were teachers of the men of the generation of Ibn Sa'd, Ibn Ma'īn, and Ibn Ḥanbal. The trend of book compilation continued into this period, as Ibn al-Nadīm identifies over a dozen books

that were published by men of this generation, most of which were arranged by legal topics (sunan) or were Qur'anic commentaries. The scholars of Basra and Kufa, many of whom were disciples of Shu'ba and Sufyān al-Thawrī, continued to develop both the arts of hadīth compilation and criticism initiated by their teachers. A new trend at this time was the blossoming of satellite towns and cities, each of which housed a small number of highly competent hadīth scholars whose material was prized by the following generation of compilers. Syria also reemerged as a vibrant center of hadith scholarship. The final transformation of this period was the dramatic arrival of the Baghdādī book market, something that can be gleaned from al-Tabaqāt al-kabīr and Ibn al-Nadīm's Fihrist. While Baghdad appears to have eclipsed Kufa and perhaps even Basra during the generation of Ibn Sa'd, Ibn Ma'īn, and Ibn Hanbal,141 it is important to bear in mind that it was still a junior partner to the two well established Iraqi amsār, whose native hadīth scholars were unrivaled in the Islamic community.

Basra remained the primary engine of hadīth compilation and criticism down to the end of the second/eighth century and into the third/ninth one. The extraordinary importance of Yaḥyā b. Saʿīd al-Qaṭṭān (d. 198/813) and his younger friend 'Abd al-Raḥmān b. Mahdī (d. 198/814), both of whom were disciples of Sufyān al-Thawrī and Shuʿba, has been demonstrated in the fourth and seventh chapters of this study. Yazīd b. Zurayʻ (d. 182/798), whom Ibn Saʿd identifies as a highly reliable hadīth scholar with 'Uthmānī sympathies, was a prominent pupil of Shuʿba, and Ibn Maʿīn considered his transmission of material from Saʿīd b. Abī 'Arūba to be superior to that Ibn 'Ulayya's material from him. 142 Both Ibn 'Ulayya (d. 193/809), who read the books of Ibn Jurayj and studied with Ayyūb al-Sakhtiyānī, 143 and the most authoritative disciple of Ḥammād b.

¹³⁹ The following scholars are identified by Ibn al-Nadīm as composers of books entitled *Kītāb al-sunan*: Ibn Abī Dhi'b (d. 159/776, Medina), Ibn Jurayj, Zā'ida b. Qudāma, Yaḥyā b. Zakariyyā b. Abī Zā'ida (d. 182/798, *qādī* of al-Madā'in), Sa'īd b. Abī 'Arūba, Ḥammād b. Salama, and al-Awzā'ī; *Fihrist*, 281-4.

¹⁴⁰ Abū Ishāq, Tabaqāt al-fuqahā', 91.

¹⁴¹ See above, V.2.5.

¹⁴² TK 2001, IX, 290; al-Dūrī, *Tārīkh*, II, 213. Recall that Ibn Ḥanbal referred to Yazīd as the "sweet scent (rayhāna, literally sweet basil) of Basra"; see above, Table 7.6. Yazīd is also the transmitter of Saʿīd b. Abī 'Arūba's voluminous collection of Qatāda's exegetical comments found throughout al-Ṭabarī's tafsīr that was mentioned above in note 135.

¹⁴³ Al-Dūrī, Tārīkh, I, 67 and II, 169. Ibn Sa'd held the octogenarian Ibn 'Ulayya to be thiqa-thabt-hujja, and Ibn Hanbal reports that he had an attractive book that contained 400 reports from Ibn 'Awn, 900 hadīth from Yūnus b. 'Ubayd, and an undisclosed number from Ayyūb; TK 2001, IX, 327–8 and Mausū'at aquūāl al-Imām Ahmad, I, 96. Ibn Ḥanbal, who mentions that he studied with Ibn 'Ulayya in

Salama, 'Affān b. Muslim (d. 220/835), 144 left their native homes of Basra to settle in Baghdad, and contributed to its rapid rise as a center of hadīth transmission. Other major pupils of Shu'ba, such as Abū Dāwūd al-Ṭayālisī (d. 203/819), Ghundar Muḥammad b. Ja'far (d. 194/810), and 'Amr b. Marzūq al-Bāhilī (d. 214/829), 145 appear to have remained in Basra, where they were sought out by the likes of Ibn Ma'īn and Ibn Ḥanbal. Finally, Bahz b. Asad (d. 197/813), whom Ibn Sa'd identifies as a very reliable and prolific transmitter, 146 was regarded extremely highly by his contemporary Ibn Mahdī and taught hadīth he obtained from Shu'ba and Ḥammād b. Salama to Qutayba b. Sa'īd and Ibn Hanbal. 147

Kufan hadīth scholars during the late second and early third centuries consisted primarily of pupils of al-A'mash and companions of Sufyān al-Thawrī. The Murji'ī transmitter Abū Mu'āwiya al-Darīr (d. 195/811) is reported to have been more sound than the Basran Jarīr b. Ḥāzim (d. 170/786) with respect to material from al-A'mash, despite the fact that he forgot a quarter of the 1600 hadīth that he acquired from this scholar during a period of illness. One of the

Baghdad in 181/797, also reports that Yaḥyā l-Qaṭṭān preferred Ibn 'Ulayya to Wuhayb b. Khālid, whereas Ibn Mahdī preferred Wuhayb; *ibid.*, I, 94–99. Ibn 'Ulayya's full name is Ismā'īl b. Ibrāhīm b. Migsam.

longer-lived pupils of al-A'mash of this time was Abū Bakr b. 'Ayyāsh (d. 193/809),¹⁵⁰ although he was far inferior to the master Kufan hadīth scholar of his day, Wakī' b. al-Jarrāḥ (d. 197/813).¹⁵¹ Wakī' studied with Ibn 'Awn after al-A'mash passed away,¹⁵² boasted that every hadīth he wrote down from Sufyān al-Thawrī had been memorized initially,¹⁵³ and habitually read hadīth from his books to his students, a practice that was adopted by his admiring pupil, Ibn Ḥanbal.¹⁵⁴ Abū Nu'aym al-Faḍl b. Dukayn (d. 219/834) was another highly-respected pupil of both al-A'mash and Sufyān al-Thawrī,¹⁵⁵ and five of the second-tier companions of Sufyān al-Thawrī in the eyes of Ibn Ma'īn were graded as either thiqa-ṣadūq or ṣadūq by Ibn Sa'd, and flourished alongside their more illustrious contemporaries in Kufa.¹⁵⁶

Al-Dūrī, Tārīkh, II, 221. Ibn Ma'īn reports a quote of 'Affān that "there is not a single hadīth that I heard during the sessions of Hammād b. Salama that I did not bring to his house and read to him in person" mā sami'tu min Hammād ibn Salama hadīthan fī l-majlis illā ataytuhu ilā manzilihi hattā aqra'ahu 'alayhi; ibid., I, 350. Ibn Sa'd grades 'Affān as thiqa-thabt-hujja and Ibn Ḥanbal was of the opinion that 'Affān had the best versions of Shu'ba's hadīth; TK 2001, IX, 300 and Mawsū'at aqwāl al-Imām Aḥmad, III, 13-15. Ibn Ḥanbal considers 'Affān to be superior to Ibn Mahdī, and mentions that he studied with 'Affān in Baghdad for a decade; ibid.

¹⁴⁵ TK 2001, IX, 299 (Abū Dāwūd); 297 (Ghundar); and 306 ('Amr).

¹⁴⁶ Ibn Sa'd graded him thiqa-hujja; TK 2001, IX, 299.

¹⁴⁷ Al-Jarh wa l-ta'dīl, II, 431. Abū Ḥātim calls Bahz Imām, sadūq, thiqa.

¹⁴⁸ Nineteen Kufans of the seventh and eighth tabaqāt are reported by Ibn Sa'd to have transmitted 'many hadāth' and to have been reliable.

¹⁴⁹ Al-Dūrī, Tārīkh, I, 387 (Jarīr) and 276 (memory loss). Ibn Sa'd graded Abū Mu'āwiya, whose name is Muḥammad b. Khāzim, as thiqa, despite his acknowledged propensity for tadlīs and his inclusion among the Murji'a; TK 2001, VIII, 515. Ibn Sa'd also reports that Wakī' did not attend his funeral, for reasons that are not identified. Ibn Ma'īn also held Abū Mu'āwiya to be thiqa, although Ibn Hanbal noted that he was "inconsistent" (mudṭarib) except with respect to al-A'mash's material, and that he made many errors in everything that he transmitted; al-Dārimī, Tārīkh, 53, 187 and Mawsū'at aqwāl al-Imām Aḥmad, III, 257–8. Ibn Ma'īn reports that Yaḥyā l-Qaṭṭān considered Jarīr b. Ḥāzim to be thiqa, an opinion that he shared with his teacher, while Ibn Ḥanbal adds to his grade of thiqa by describing Jarīr as ṣāḥib sunna; al-Dūrī, Tārīkh, II, 115, 266 and Mawsū'at aqwāl al-Imām Ahmad, I, 189–92.

¹⁵⁰ TK 2001, VIII, 508. Ibn Sa'd grades Abū Bakr as thiqa-ṣadūq but remarks that he made many errors (ghalat). He also observes that he was particularly pious (min al-'ubbād). Ibn Ma'in merely mentions that he was inferior to Abū l-Aḥwaṣ (whom Ibn Sa'd grades as ṣāliḥ); al-Dūrī, Tārīkh, I, 272 and TK 2001, VIII, 500. Ibn Ḥanbal is reported to have graded Abū Bakr as ṣadūq, thiqa, ṣāḥib Qur'ān wa khayr; Mawsū'at aqwāl al-Imām Aḥmad, IV, 193-5. Recall that al-Dhahabī identified Abū Bakr as a Shaykh al-Islam in Tadhkirat al-ḥuffāz; see above, III.3.

¹⁵¹ Al-Dūrī, Tārīkh, I, 341. Wakī is reported to have selected carefully from Abū Bakr b. 'Ayyāsh's hadīth.

¹⁵² Al-Dūrī, Tānīkh, II, 190. Ibn Ma'īn reports elsewhere that Wakī' accumulated 800 hadīth from al-A'mash; ibid., I, 276.

¹⁵³ mā katabtu 'an al-Thawrī ḥadīthan qaṭṭu kuntu aḥſazuhu idhā raja'tu ilā l-manzili katab-tuhu; ibid., I, 229.

¹³⁴ Al-Dūrī, Tārīkh, I, 351. Ibn Ma'īn also reports that he witnessed Wakī' reading from a book entitled Kītāb al-zuhd and refused to recite to his students Ibn 'Umar's hadīth "be a stranger in this world" kun fī l-dunyā ka'annaka gharībun aw 'ābir sabīl; ibid., I, 411. This Kītāb al-zuhd might be the same text as the 1994 Kītāb alzuhd attributed to Wakī' published in Riyadh; see above IV.4.7. Ibn al-Nadīm mentions a Kītāb al-sunan attributed to Wakī'; Fihrist, 283. For a reference to his Muṣannaf, see below, note 181.

¹⁵⁵ Both Ibn Sa'd and Ibn Hanbal grade Abū Nu'aym as thiqa-hujja; TK 2001, VIII, 523-4 and Mawsū'at aqwāl al-Imām Ahmad, III, 151-4. Ibn Ma'īn and Ibn al-Madīnī consider Abū Nu'aym among the best companions of Sufyān al-Thawrī, and Abū Hātim al-Rāzī observsd that Abū Nu'aym accurately memorized 3500 hadīth of al-Thawrī and 500 hadīth of Mis'ar b. Kidām; al-Jarh wa l-ta'dīl, VII, 61-2. Al-Bukhārī included 175 hadīth from Abū Nu'aym in his Sahīt, Sezgin, Buhārī'nin Kaynaklari, 237 (#96). Sixty-two of these hadīth trace back to Sufyān al-Thawrī. Ibn al-Nadīm mentions a Kītāb al-manāsik and a Kītāb al-masā'il fī l-fīqh attributed to Abū Nu'aym; Fihrist, 283.

¹³⁶ These five scholars were 'Ubayd Allāh b. Mūsā, Abū Aḥmad al-Zubayrī, Yaḥyā b. Ādam, Muʿāwiya b. Hishām, and Qabīṣa b. 'Uqba; TK 2001, VIII, 522, 526, 527. Note that Ibn Sa'd grades Yaḥyā slightly higher than these other men and observes that 'Ubayd Allāh had more material from Isrā'īl b. Yūnus than anyone of his age and that he was a master Qur'ān reciter in his mosque. See above, VII.3 for further references.

Finally, 'Abdullāh b. Idrīs (d. 192/808), Abū Usāma Ḥammād b. Usāma (d. 201/816), and Muḥammad b. 'Ubayd al-Ṭanāfisī (d. 204/819), were reliable and prolific transmitters who all received the tantalizing sectarian affiliation sāḥib sunna wa jamā'a from Ibn Sa'd. 157

Several new and exciting centers of hadīth transmission sprouted during the high 'Abbāsid caliphate. While some scholars, like the peripatetic Ibn al-Mubārak, refused to be tethered to any particular town for too long a period of time, the majority of adventuresome hadith folk ultimately settled in one or another location. 158 'Abd al-Razzāq al-Şan'ānī (d. 211/826) and Hishām b. Yūsuf (d. 197/813) established San'ā' as one of the most prestigious cities for hadīth in the Islamic world for roughly half a century, largely due to the fact that their teacher Ma'mar b. Rāshid lived there for the last twenty years of his life, as well as the massive amount of material they collected from Ibn Jurayj, Sufyān al-Thawrī, and Ibn 'Uyayna. 159 Palestine received a boost with the arrival of Shu'ba's master pupil, Adam b. Abī Iyās (d. 220/835), in 'Asgalān, and Sufyān al-Thawrī's disciple Muhammad b. Yūsuf al-Firvābī (d. 212/827) in Oīsāriva (Caesarea). 160 The city of Wasit boasted Hushaym b. Bashīr (d. 183/799), who eventually settled in Baghdad, and Yazīd b. Hārūn (d. 206/821), who counted Sulaymān al-Taymī, Ḥumayd al-Ṭawīl, and three of Sufyān al-Thawrī's "four ḥuffāz" among his teachers. [61] Finally, Ibn 'Uyayna and his disciple, 'Abdullāh b. al-Zubayr al-Ḥumaydī (d. 219/834), elevated the thriving Meccan ḥadīth scene, which received another boost from the influx of prolific pious ḥadīth scholars, such as al-Fuḍayl b. 'Iyāḍ (d. 187/803), 'Abdullāh b. Rajā' (d. about 190/805), and Abū 'Abd al-Raḥmān al-Muqrī (d. 213/828), who chose to live their final years in the holiest city of Islamdom. [62]

One of the more spectacular transformations of this period was the rise of Syria as a major hadīth center. One reason for this change was the steady stream of proficient hadīth scholars who came to the frontier era in order to wage war (or encourage others to do so) against the Byzantines. While this raiding was a part of official 'Abbāsid policy, it appears as though the erudite hadīth folk who settled in Maṣṣīṣa and other frontier areas may have been following the example of the ascetic Ibn al-Mubārak, rather than the caliph Hārūn. Maṣṣīṣa housed Abū Isḥāq al-Fazārī (d. 185/801), who, despite his habit of making many errors in his hadīth, was considered by Ibn Sa'd as a sāḥib sunna. Muḥammad b. Kathīr (d. 210/825), a native Syrian, brought his trove of materials from al-Awzā'ī and Ma'mar to Maṣṣīṣa, and Makhlad b. al-Ḥusayn (d. 191/807), a Basran,

¹⁵⁷ TK 2001, VIII, 511, 517, 520. Ibn Ma'īn evaluates Ibn Idrīs and Abū Usāma as thiqa, and al-Dūrī reports that Ibn Ma'īn would "only speak well" of Muḥammad al-Ṭanāfisī; al-Dārimī, Tārīkh, 52, 92 and al-Dūrī, Tārīkh, I, 353. Ibn Ḥanbal's opinion of Ibn Idrīs and al-Ṭanāfisī is slightly less positive than that of Ibn Ma'īn, although he declares Abū Usāma to be thabt ṣahīḥ al-kitāb; see Mawsū'at aqwāl al-Imām Almad, II, 227-8 (Ibn Idrīs), I, 293-4 (Abū Usāma) and III, 292-3 (al-Ṭanāfisī).

¹⁵⁸ Ibn al-Mubārak is praised by Ibn Sa'd as Imām, thiqa-ḥujja; TK 2001, IX, 376. See above, IV. 4.6, for a discussion of his role in hadīth-transmitter criticism. An edition of his famous book Kītāb al-zuhd wa l-raqā'iq was present in Qayrawān prior to the end of the third/ninth century; Muranyi, Beiträge, 74. This book has been published, and appears to contain a modest number of hadīth with complete isnāds.

¹⁵⁹ TK 2001, VIII; 108. The significance of 'Abd al-Razzāq's Muṣannaf for the reconstruction of the first two centuries of Islam cannot be overestimated and has been demonstrated by Motzki's The Origins of Islamic Jurisprudence; for a biography of the compiler, see ibid., 62–8. Recall that the value of the hadīth of 'Abd al-Razzāq and Hishām inspired Ibn Ma'īn and Ibn Ḥanbal to make the arduous journey from Baghdad to Yemen.

¹⁶⁰ TK 2001, IX, 496 (Ādam); 495 (al-Firyābī). Al-Dhahabī identies al-Firyābī's city of residence as Caesarea and notes that he died just prior to Ibn Ḥanbal's trip to see him; *Tadhkira*, I, 275–6. Ibn al-Nadīm reports the existence of a Qur'ānic exegesis of al-Firyābī, as well as various books of *fiqh*; *Fibrist*, 285. Al-Bukhārī included 281 *ḥadīth* from Ādam in his Ṣaḥīḥ, 137 of which were transmitted by Shu'ba; Sezgin, *Buhârî'nin Kaynaklari*, 217 (#33).

¹⁶¹ TK 2001, IX, 315 (Hushaym) and 316 (Yazīd). These three teachers are Yaḥyā l-Anṣārī, Ismā'il b. Abī Khālid, and 'Abd al-Malik b. Abī Sulaymān. Ibn Ḥanbal described Yazīd as hāfiz mutqin li-l-hadīth, while Ibn Ma'īn and Ibn al-Madīnī called him thiqa; Ibn Abī Ḥātim, al-Jarḥ wa l-ta'dīt, IX, 295. Ibn al-Nadīm reports a kītāb al-farā'īd attributed to Yazīd: Fihrist. 284.

lbn 'Uyayna has been discussed in some detail above, IV.4.5. Ibn Ma'īn considered him to be the preeminent pupil of 'Amr b. Dīnār; al-Dārimī, Tārīkh, 55-6. Ibn Sa'd considered al-Ḥumaydī to be thiqa although Ibn Ma'īn refused to take hadītli from the latter due to his lack of scrutiny (yatasahhal); TK 2001, VIII, 63 and al-Dūrī, Tārīkh, I, 99. Note that al-Ḥumaydī's Musnad contains 1300 hadīth and was edited in two volumes by Ḥabīb al-Raḥmān al-Yamī in 1963. Al-Bukhārī included 33 hadīth from al-Ḥumaydī in his Ṣahīt, 27 of which are attributed to Ibn 'Uyayna; Sezgin, Buhārî'nin Kaynaklari, 213 (#19). Ibn Sa'd reports that al-Fuḍayl, 'Abdullāh b. Rajā', and Abū 'Abd al-Raḥmān all transmitted many hadīth and were reliable scholars; TK 2001, VIII, 61-2. Al-Fuḍayl came from Khurāsān, while the later two men were Basrans. Al-Bukhārī includes only 12 hadīth from Abū 'Abd al-Raḥmān in his Ṣahīth, Sezgin, Buhārî'nin Kaynaklari, 213 (#17).

¹⁶³ TK 2001, IX, 494. His full name was Ibrāhīm b. Muḥammad and his Kītāb al-siyar has been published; Abū Isḥāq al-Fazārī, Kītāb al-siyar, ed. Fārūq Ḥammāda (Beirut, 1987). Ibn 'Uyayna called him an Imām, Ibn Mahdī praised his hadīth from al-Mughīra [b. Miqsam al-Dabbī], and Ibn Ma'īn said thiqa thiqa; Ibn Abī Ḥātim, al-Jarh wa l-ta'dīl, II. 128-9.

added a pile of transmissions from Hishām b. Ḥassān to the mix.¹⁶⁴ Ibn Maʿīn is reported to have considered 'Abdullāh b. Yūsuf al-Kalāʿī's (d. 218/833) recension of the *Muwaṭṭa*' as the most reliable version of Mālik's book and al-Bukhārī identified him as one of the most reliable Syrians.¹⁶⁵ Finally, three *hadīth* scholars of Ḥimṣ and Damascus, two of whom were plagued with charges of deceitful transmission,¹⁶⁶ contributed greatly to the rehabilitation of these old cities of Syria that had once been home to the *ṣaḥāba* Muʿādh b. Jabal and Abū l-Dardā'.

The most vibrant center for the transmission of hadīth at the turn of the third century may have been the royal capital of Baghdad. We have seen how certain individuals, especially Medinans like Hishām b. 'Urwa, Ibn Ishāq, Ibn Abī l-Zinād, and Ibrāhīm b. Sa'd, had been lured to Baghdad with lucrative jobs or other enticements, and it appears that the hadīth-folk reached a critical mass in this city only during the following generation. Hushaym b. Bashīr, Ibn Ḥanbal's first significant hadīth teacher, immigrated from Wāsiṭ, Qirāḍ Abū Nūḥ came from Basra with a wealth of material from Shu'ba, lot and Ibn 'Ulayya arrived with exceptional familiarity with the books of Ibn Jurayj. A final Basran arrival in Baghdad, whom we have already encountered, was 'Affān b. Muslim, and it is clear that Ibn Sa'd took advantage of his neighbor from the fact that much of his Ḥammād b. Saļama material related to the ṣaḥāba cited in al-Ṭabaqāt al-kabīr was obtained from this prestigious scholar.

¹⁶⁴ TK 2001, IX, 495. Makhlad's mother was a wife of Hishām b. Ḥassān, an expert in the *hadīth* of Ibn Sīrīn.

Ibn Ḥanbal distinguished three unparalleled "Companions of hadīth" of his day in Baghdad, the most precise of whom was Abū Kāmil Muzaffar b. Mudrik (d. 207/822). 169 Al-Haytham b. Jamīl (d. 213/828) was considered by Ibn Ḥanbal to have had the most hadīth memorized among these three scholars, and al-Dhahabī reports that he went bankrupt twice in the course of his insatiable quest for hadīth. 170 The third member of this trio, Abū Salama Manṣūr b. Salama al-Khuzāʿī, was reported by Ibn Saʿd to have been reluctant to teach hadīth, then succumbed for a few days, and finally moved to Maṣṣīṣa in 210/825. 171 These three scholars not only contributed to the hadīth culture of Baghdad but also, if the anecdotal evidence is correct, played a major role in the education of Ibn Maʿīn and Ibn Ḥanbal with respect to isnād analysis. 172

One of the most significant developments for the discipline of hadīth transmission in Baghdad was the emergence of the book market. Ibn Sa'd identifies several transmitters of books in his day, all of whom he could have met in person. Yaḥyā b. Sa'īd b. Abān (d. 194/810) transmitted both the Maghāzī of Ibn Ishāq as well as many hadīth of al-A'mash. Sa'd b. Ibrāhīm b. Sa'd (d. 201/816), a qādī for Hārūn al-Rashīd, transmitted his father's books, while his brother, Ya'qub (d. 208/823) transmitted his father's recension of Ibn Isḥāq's Maghāzī. The Maghāzī of Abū Ma'shar was available from Ḥusayn b. Muḥammad b. Bahrām, who also distributed the Tafsīr of Shaybān b. 'Abd al-Raḥmān that Ibn Ma'īn considered inferior to the similar work of Sa'īd b. Abī 'Arūba. The Sa'īd's books were available from

¹⁶³ Al-Dhahabī, Siyar, X, 357–8. In one version of this report, Ibn Ma'īn professes the superiority of the Muwaṭṭa's of both al-Kalā'ī and al-Qa'nabī. Al-Bukhārī included 335 hadīth from 'Abdullāh b. Yūsuf in his Saḥīḥ, 272 of which came from Mālik and 57 of which came from al-Layth b. Sa'd; Sezgin, Buhārī'nin Kaynaklari, 212 (#18). Note that al-Kalā'ī ranks second, after Musaddad, in the list of al-Bukhārī's most frequently cited sources in his Ṣaḥīḥ.

¹⁶⁶ Al-Walīd b. Muslim (d. 194/810) and Baqiyya b. al-Walīd (d. 197/813) were both guilty of engaging in much tadīts, TK 2001, IX, 474–5. Ibn al-Nadīm reports the existence of a Kitāb al-sunan fī l-fiqh and Kitāb al-maghāzī for al-Walīd; al-Fihrist, 284. The third major Syrian was Abū Mushir 'Abd al-A'lā, the qādī of Damascus who died in prison in 218/833 as a result of the mina; ibid., IX, 479.

¹⁶⁷ ȚK 2001, IX, 337.

¹⁶⁸ TK 2001, IX, 327-8; al-Dūrī, Tārīkh, I, 67. Ibn Ma'īn also mentions that Ibn 'Ulayya was inferior to Ḥammād b. Zayd with respect to Ayyūb, something that is hardly surprising given his opinion that nobody was more erudite with Ayyūb's material than Ḥammād; *ibid.*, II, 169.

¹⁶⁹ This report is from the 'Ilal and can be found in Mawsū'at aqwāl al-Imām Almad in each of the three men's entries: Abū Kāmil (III, 363); al-Haytham b. Jamīl (IV, 72); and Abū Salama Manṣūr b. Salama (III, 399). Al-Dhahabī mentions that Ibn Ma'īn learned how to scrutinize hadīth from Abū Kāmil; Tadhkira, I, 262.

¹⁷⁰ Tadhkira, I, 262. Al-Haytham's teachers included Ḥammād b. Salama, Mālik, al-Layth b. Sa'd, and Zuhayr b. Mu'āwiya; he left Baghdad at some point to settle in Antioch, and thus contributed to the hadīth florescence in the frontier lands during this time. A less positive effect of this move was that his hadīth are found only in the Sunan of Ibn Māja out of the six Sunnī books.

¹⁷¹ TK 2001, IX, 348.

¹⁷² I have just mentioned Abū Kāmil's role in the education of Ibn Maʿīn; al-Dāraquṭnī is quoted as stating that both Ibn Maʿīn and Ibn Ḥanbal learned the discipline of isnād criticism ('silm al-rijāl) from Abū Salama, presumable prior to his departure from Baghdad in 210/825; Tadhkira, I, 263.

¹⁷³ TK 2001, VIII, 520 and IX, 341.

¹⁷⁴ TK 2001, IX, 345. 175 TK 2001, IX, 340.

'Abd al-Wahhāb b. 'Aṭā' al-'Ijlī, 176 and it is quite likely that his tafsīr was a critical component of 'Abd al-Wahhāb's own tafsīr, identified in the Fihrist. 177 Sufyān al-Thawrī's Jāmi' was available from his disciple 'Ubayd Allāh b. 'Ubayd al-Raḥmān al-Ashja'ī (d. 182/798), 178 although Ibn Ma'īn states that he obtained this book from 'Ubayd Allāh b. Mūsā (d. 213/828) in Kufa. 179 Zā'ida b. Qudāma's writings could be procured from Mu'āwiya b. 'Amr al-Azdī (d. 214/829), who was also a disseminator of Abū Isḥāq al-Fazārī's Kītāb al-siyar. 180 Finally, the Muṣannaf of Wakī' was available from the bookseller (al-warrāq) al-'Abbās b. Ghālib (d. 233/848), 181 a contemporary of Ibn Sa'd who actually outlived him, and whose inclusion in al-Ṭabaqāt al-kabīr may have been the work of Ibn Fahm or al-Ḥārith b. Abī Usāma.

The fifth, and final period of hadīth transmission in this narrative brings the material to the teachers of the books I have subjected to investigation in this and the two preceding chapters. Ibn Sa'd drew liberally upon the knowledge of 'Affān b. Muslim, Abū Nu'aym, Muḥammad al-Ṭanāfisī, Wakī' b. al-Jarrāḥ, and, of course al-Wāqidī, all of whom he met in person. Ibn Ḥanbal included much material from the Iraqis Wakī', Yaḥyā b. Sa'īd al-Qaṭṭān, 'Affān b. Muslim, and Yazīd b. Hārūn in his Musnad, and his journey with Ibn Ma'īn to San'ā' to acquire copious written materials from 'Abd al-Razzāq and Hishām b. Yūsuf makes sense in light of the decimation of the caliber of hadīth compilation in the Ḥijāz that occurred during the previous period. The discovery of the dominance of the hadīth

scholars of Basra, Kufa, and Baghdad in the fifth chapter of this study is consistent with the findings of this chapter based upon al-Tabaqāt al-kabīr, al-Dūrī's Tārīkh, and Ibn Ḥanbal's identification of the three original Aṣḥāb al-ḥadīth in Baghdad.

The rise in sophistication of hadīth compilation and criticism, manifest in the work of Yahyā l-Qattān and the book market of Baghdad, was also matched by the qualitative improvements in the realm of jurisprudence, as this was the age of the great Hanafi authorities Muḥammad b. al-Ḥasan al-Shaybānī and al-Qāḍī Abū Yūsuf. It is quite informative that Ibn Sa'd acknowledges the hadith erudition of these two men, and yet declares that it became spoiled due to their contacts with the ray of Abū Ḥanīfa. 183 The circulation of so many hadīth books arranged according to legal topics (kutub al-sunan or farā'id) at this time indicates that there was never any absolute divorce between experts in figh and those in hadith, but, rather, the dispute was clearly over the religious authority of individual reasoning (ra'y), something in which the hadith folk did not place much confidence when undertaken by disciples of Abū Hanīfa. 184 Indeed, there do not appear to have been complaints over Mālik's or Sufyān al-Thawrī's use of independent reasoning at this time, and even al-Dūrī provides several examples of Ibn Ma'īn's opinions on the topics of hunting, and, in particular, prayer, in his Tārīkh. 185 The message from these sources by the articulators of Sunnī Islam is unambiguous—the authoritative Muslim teachers must combine the qualities of hadīth erudition, reliable transmission, and a somewhat strict avoidance of the opinions of Abū Ḥanīfa and his disciples. How and when Abū Ḥanīfa became a Sunnī authority in the eyes of hadīth scholars is outside the scope of this book; what is clear is that his disciples were not welcome by Ibn Sa'd and his contemporaries. 186

¹⁷h TK 2001, IX, 335.

¹⁷⁷ Filmist, 284. 'Abd al-Wahhāb is credited here as well with a Kītāb al-sunan fī l-figh and a Kītāb al-nāsikh wa l-mansūkh.

¹⁷⁸ TK 2001, IX, 330. 'Ubayd Allāh is also listed among the seventh *tabaqa* of the Kufans; *ibid.*, VIII, 514. Ibn al-Nadīm lists al-Ashja'ī among the transmitters of al-Thawrī's al-Jāmi' al-saghīr but not his al-Jāmi' al-kabīr; Fihrist, 281.

¹⁷⁹ See above, VII.3, note 62. This finding is interesting, since we observed in the previous chapter that Ibn Ma'in considered al-Ashja'ī to be a superior scholar to 'Ubayd Allāh b. Mūsā. Recall too, that al-Tirmidhī acquired the legal opinions of Suſyān al-Thawrī from the scribe of the Kuſan 'Ubayd Allāh (see above, III.3, note 15).

¹⁸⁰ TK 2001, IX, 343.

¹⁸¹ TK 2001, IX, 366.

¹⁸² The most prominent disciples of Mālik alive in Medina at this time were Ma'n b. 'Īsā (d. 198/814), whom Ibn Sa'd grades thiqa-thabt; 'Abdullāh b. Nāfi' al-Ṣā'igh (d. 206/821) whom Ibn Sa'd declares was inferior to (dūn) Ma'n; and, perhaps, Muṭarrif b. 'Abdullāh (d. 220/835), whom Ibn Sa'd grades as thiqa; TK, VII, 615–16. Abū Ḥātim prefered Ma'n to 'Abdullāh al-Ṣā'igh and declared than Ma'n was the most reliable (awthaq) member of Mālik's companions; al-Jarḥ wa l-ta'dīl, VIII, 278.

¹⁸³ ȚK 2001, IX, 332, 338.

Ibn Sa'd's comment concerning Mu'allā b. Manṣūr, a Baghdādī scholar associated in other sources with the teachings of Abū Ḥanīfa, is illustrative of this point: "some hadīth scholars transmit from him, and some do not transmit ra'y from him;" TK 2001, IX, 344 and Melchert, "How Ḥanafism came to Originate in Kufa and Traditionalism in Medina," 329-30.

¹⁸⁵ Al-Dūrī, *Tārīkh*, I, 94, 338; II, 176–7, 181. Recall Ibn Ma'īn's explicit approval of the *ra'y* of Sufyān al-Thawrī and Mālik; see above, VII.3, note 59.

Note also Ibn Abī Shayba's al-Radd 'alā Abī Ḥanīfa, included in the published edition of his Muṣannaf, which rejects roughly 120 legal opinions of Abū Ḥanīfa on the basis of hadīth and āthār; al-Kītāb al-muṣannaf fī l-ahādīth wa l-āthār, VII, 276–326.

One particularly conspicuous absence from the discussion of this period is, of course, Muhammad b. Idrīs al-Shāfi'ī. Ibn Sa'd and Ibn Ma'īn appear to ignore him, if they even knew him, and the references to him in the 'Ilal indicate Ibn Hanbal's admiration of his rhetorical capablilities, rather than his legal acumen. 187 While it is true that prior to the mid-third/ninth century the majority of the material found in the sunan books was not prophetic reports and consisted instead of sahābī and tābi'ī āthār, there still must have been a substantial body of hadīth in circulation prior to the date of al-Shāfi'ī's composition of the Risāla (around the year 200/820). The reason why Mālik had only a modest number of prophetic hadīth in his Muwatta' and Ibn Hanbal included about 30,000 hadīth in his Musnad was not necessarily due to an explosion of hadīth fabrication, as is insinuated by Juynboll, 188 but, rather, due partly to the rapid decline of Medina as a center for hadith transmission and the whims of the various compilers of his book. Had Mālik actually left his beloved city and visited Basra or Kufa (or even San'ā'), he may have been inclined to transmit even more hadith than the hundreds that are found in the Muwatta' and other classic compilations. 189 The notion that al-Shāfi'ī stimulated a "hadith revolution" is not even remotely supported by al-Ṭabaqāt al-kabīr or Ibn Ma'īn's critical opinions, 190 both of which suggest strongly that al-Shāfi'ī merely articulated something that the <code>hadīth-folk</code> long had known: the best source for the Prophet's practice (sunna) was the corpus of <code>hadīth</code>, passed from the <code>sahāba</code> to the $t\bar{a}bi'\bar{u}n$, from the $t\bar{a}bi'\bar{u}n$ to the generation of al-Zuhrī, Ayyūb, and al-A'mash, and from this generation to the generation of Shu'ba, al-Thawrī, and Mālik, the latter whom of course, was a primary teacher of al-Shāfi'ī. [9]

VIII.7 Conclusion

The purpose of this skeletal narrative of the development of the first two centuries of hadīth scholarship has been to uncover the story behind the massive, and at times confusing, critical works by what may have been the first generation of Sunnī scholars. I have limited myself to the earliest available sources that depict both this history and the close correlation between the men whom Ibn Sa'd identifies as having transmitted many hadīth and those whom Ibn Ma'ın identifies as being close to major scholars of each generation. I have made extensive use of Ibn Hajar's study of the atraf of the Musnad of Ibn Hanbal because it sheds valuable light upon the relationships between the most prolific sahāba and their most influential tābi'ān disciples that are only hinted at in al-Tabaqāt al-kabīr. Although this discussion has included quite a few names, it is important to realize that it includes only the elite transmitters of the first two centuries of Islam from among the thousands of men Ibn Sa'd and his contemporaries dutifully recorded in their books. Just as I endeavored to articulate al-Dhahabi's vision of the development of hadith scholarship down to his day in the third chapter, I have done my utmost to be faithful to the historical vision of hadith scholarship, as understood by Ibn Sa'd, Ibn Ma'īn, Ibn Hanbal, and other early articulators of Sunnī Islam in the third/ninth century. It is this critical historical vision, after all, that I argue lies at the core of the initial articulation of Sunnī Islam by the hadīth scholars of the third/ninth century.

¹⁸⁷ Mawsū'at aqwāl al-Imām Aḥmad, III, 232-5. Al-Shāfi'ī's role in the development of hadīth criticism is investigated above, IV.5.

¹⁸⁸ See Juynboll, Muslim Tradition, 28-9.

Note that hundreds of hadīth transmitted by Mālik that were not included in the Yaḥyā l-Laythī edition of the Muwaṭṭa' can be found in the classical Sunnī compilations. One of the first scholars to thoroughly examine Mālik's myriad hadīth in many Eastern recensions of the Muwaṭṭa' was the Shaykh al-Islām al-Dāraquṭnī, whom we encountered above, III.5; see his slender book Aḥādīth al-Muwaṭṭa' wa ittifāq al-ruwāt 'an Mālik wa ikhtilāfuhum fihā ziyādatan wa naqṣan, ed. Muḥammad Zāhid al-Kawthārī (no place, no date). Al-Dāraquṭnī notes that there are 565 hadīth in all of the recensions of the Muwaṭṭa', 71 in some of the recensions, and 6 in which Mālik does not identify his source; ibid., 37. See also Ṣiddīqī, Ḥadīth Literature, 7-8

¹⁹⁰ Motzki has come to a similar conclusion, on the basis of his sophisticated analysis of the Muşannaf of 'Abd al-Razzāq: "The growth of the stock of traditions within and outside of the schools is not necessarily to be laid at the door—as Schacht assumes—of forgers opposed to the ancient schools and counter-forgers within schools ... it has been possible to demonstrate that 'typical common links' like 'Amr b. Dīnār, Ibn Jurayj, and Ibn 'Uyayna are not generally to be considered as forgers or propagators of contemporary forgeries, as Schacht identified them." See The Origins of Islamic Jurisprudence, 297.

¹⁹¹ For an insightful reappraisal of the delayed influence of al-Shāfi'ī and his *Risāla*, see Wael Hallaq, "Was al-Shāfi'ī the Master Architect of Islamic Jurisprudence?"

CHAPTER NINE

CONCLUSION

This study began with the hypothesis that the major hadīth scholars of the third/ninth century played a far greater role in the articulation of Sunnī Islam than did al-Shāfi'ī and Abū l-Ḥasan al-Ash'arī, two men traditionally associated with the crystallization of Sunnism. One of the primary reasons for my focus upon the hadīth scholars of this period is the historical fact that the Sahīls of al-Bukhārī and Muslim have remained the most exalted books, after the Qur'an, in the opinions of virtually all Sunnī scholars of the past twelve centuries, a feat unmatched by any legal or theological work found in the four primary schools of law or the three schools of theology associated with Sunnism.1 How did these two books achieve this status? In order to answer this question, it was necessary to examine initially three related topics: 1) the long-term evolution of Sunni hadīth scholarship; 2) the rise of both hadīth and hadīth-transmitter criticism during the three generations prior to al-Bukhārī and Muslim; and 3) the state of hadīth scholarship on the eve of these two compilers, which I have dubbed the generation of Ibn Sa'd, Ibn Ma'īn, and Ibn Hanbal.

A narrative of the evolution of *hadīth* scholarship over its seven most vibrant centuries was the task of the second and third chapters, the aim of which was to provide a historical context for the most influential *hadīth* scholars and books in the Sunnī tradition. I relied heavily upon al-Dhahabī's *Tadhkirat al-ḥuffāz* for the seven-phase narrative of this tradition, and paid particular attention to the men whom he identified with the sobriquet Shaykh al-Islām. Few scholars, if any, in Islamic civilization have devoted such an enormous amount of time and paper to the elucidation of the development of Sunnī *ḥadīth* compilation and criticism as al-Dhahabī, and I endeavored to make my presentation as faithful as possible to his critical eye. Two particularly important findings in these chapters were the dating of

¹ The three Sunnī schools of theology are the Ash'arī, Mātūrīdī, and that of the *liadīth* folk, which, for lack of a better expression, is the one that opposes staunchly rational speculation on theological topics.

the first hadīth compilations to a full century prior to the two Ṣaḥīḥs and, secondly, the surprisingly high volume of compilation and criticism that occurred during the century after their production. This latter observation indicates that there was much material that fourth/tenth century scholars felt needed to be preserved that had not been included in the books of al-Bukhārī and his contemporaries, and that the two Ṣaḥīḥs represented a high watermark in the evolution of hadīth scholarship, but were not the culmination of this ubiquitous Sunnī tradition. It was also clear that a closer investigation of the sources composed during the generation of scholars who lived prior to al-Bukhārī and Muslim, as opposed to the Mamlūk days of al-Dhahabī, would be necessary to uncover exactly how this high watermark was reached, as well as to ascertain the fundamental assumptions upon which these books were built.

We inched closer to our goal of identifying the process by which Sunnism was articulated with an investigation of the origins of hadīth criticism in the fourth chapter. I reasoned that if my hypothesis that hadīth scholars played the major role in the shaping of Sunnī Islam was correct, then the critical disciplines constructed by the most prominent of these scholars must have exerted a major influence upon the nature of the core sources that were compiled according to their guidelines. The primary challenge was to isolate the earliest and most important designers of this craft, and to distinguish between the mere hadīth critics, such as Sufyān al-Thawrī, and the more specialized hadīth-transmitter critics, like Shu'ba, Mālik, and Yahyā l-Qatṭān. A particularly significant finding was that hadīth-transmitter criticism was not applied on a vast scale until the generation immediately preceding al-Bukhārī and Muslim, which just so happened to be the generation of Ibn Sa'd, Ibn Ma'īn, and Ibn Ḥanbal, the first group of critics whose opinions have been well preserved.

A thorough investigation of the nature of *hadīth* scholarship and its relationship to *literateurs*, theologians, ascetics, and jurists of the generation of Ibn Sa'd, Ibn Ma'īn, and Ibn Hanbal, was necessary due to the importance of these men upon the development of *hadīth* compilation and criticism. Al-Dhahabī's *Siyar a'lām al-nubalā'* provided a spectacular bird's eye view of the intellectual and religious life of the central lands of Islam during the first half of the third/ninth century, and depicted the preeminence of Iraqi scholars, along with the shift of the *hadīth* centers east to Khurāsān and even central Asia, from where all six of the canonical compilers emerged. The

florescence of book production was evident during this time, and my decision to label this period as the "generation of Ibn Sa'd, Ibn Ma'īn, and Ibn Ḥanbal" was due to both the influence of these scholars in general upon hadīth compilation and criticism, as well as the accessibility of their opinions, which I subjected to rigorous analysis in Part II of this book.

One of the key assumptions that I have made in this study has been that the primary books that I investigated in Part II, namely Ibn Sa'd's al-Tabaqāt al-kabīr, al-Dūrī's Tārīkh, the 'Ilal of 'Abdullāh b. Ahmad, and Ibn Hanbal's Musnad, are the appropriate works for the analysis of the emergence of Sunnī Islam. While I have shown in the fourth chapter that the critical opinions of Ibn Ma'īn and Ibn Hanbal were among the most highly esteemed of their era, Ibn Sa'd's opinions do not seem to have been particularly important until, perhaps, the time of al-Khatīb al-Baghdādī.2 Even though I justified the inclusion of al-Tabaqāt al-kabīr on the basis of the large number of both qualitative and quantitative opinions it contains, one nagging uncertainty remained: did any of these three scholars consider himself to be Sunnī? In fact, there does not appear to be much evidence that the term "Sunnī" was much in use during the time to which I am dating its origins, and we saw that the term sāḥib sunna occurred very infrequently in al-Tabaqāt al-kabīr, and never in al-Dūrī's Tārīkh. How could I claim to be describing the nature of the emergence of Sunnī Islam when the precise self-identities of its first adherents are so opaque?

My solution to this problem has been to approach Sunnism not as a creed articulated by an individual, but, rather, as a textual tradition based upon three fundamental principles, each of which I analyzed in Part II of this book. The first of these principles is the collective probity of the saḥāba, all of whom were authorities for the purpose of hadāth transmission, regardless of their relationship to the acrimonious conflicts that emerged immediately following the death of the Prophet Muḥammad. The second principle is a methodology, the precise nature of which remains somewhat mysterious, for hadāth-transmitter criticism, and a consensus as to the identities of the most authoritative transmitters of religious material during the first two centuries

 $^{^2}$ A perusal of $T\bar{a}\pi\bar{k}h$ Baghad suggests that al-Khaṭīb drew copiously upon Ibn Sa'd's opinions found in al-Tabaqāt al-kabīr.

of Islam. I demonstrated the existence of this consensus in chapter seven, where I found a rate of 87% agreement regarding the reliability of the transmitters whom Ibn Sa'd and Ibn Ma'īn graded, and 86% for those whom Ibn Sa'd and Ibn Hanbal graded. The final, and perhaps most subtle, principle guiding the hadīth scholars who compiled the most important Sunnī books is a historical vision as to the five-generation development of their craft. I articulated this narrative on the basis of a close analysis of the major sahābī and tābi'ī transmitters in the Musnad of Ibn Hanbal, the most prolific transmitters identified in Ibn Sa'd's al-Tabagāt al-kabīr, and the individuals who cultivated circles of disciples (ashāb) according to Ibn Ma'ın and Ibn Hanbal. This vision, which has hitherto been ignored or even obfuscated by most modern scholars, is perhaps the most eloquent expression of the network of authoritative scholars whose transmissions inspired the compilers of the third/ninth century to travel thousands of miles in order to acquire and include in their hadīth books.

The biggest risk that I took in this project was the conscious decision to postpone a detailed analysis of any major hadīth book of the third/ninth century until after an investigation of the critical prosopographical literature of the same period. The reason for this procedure lay largely in the esoteric nature of the isnād, namely the hidden story behind the men who transmitted each hadith. How much material did each name in the isnād transmit? Was a transmitter a prominent pupil of the source from which he obtained the report? Was he a semi-reliable, excellent, or mediocre transmitter? While these questions are occasionally answered in the commentaries of major hadīth books, the reader, more often than not, must perform the "background check" of the transmitters himself. This book then, should be seen as a necessary preliminary step in order acquire some of the prosopographical knowledge that the compilers of the great hadīth books had in their memories and felt little obligation to include in their works. In other words, I have identified the men whom I believe were considered the most reliable hadīth scholars in the Sunnī tradition from the time of its origins until the third/ninth century and whose presence in an isnād enhanced greatly the value of the hadīth to which it was attached.

Several exciting avenues of research in the Sunnī hadīth literature have become apparent during the course of this project. An analysis of the roles of the ṣaḥāba in ḥadīth transmission is an urgent task in

order to reveal their didactic efforts that ultimately played a significant part in the articulation of Islamic law. Another topic of importance is the need to uncover the teachings of the generation of Wakī', Yaḥyā l-Qaṭṭān, and 'Affān b. Muslim, whose non-extant writings formed the nuclei of their pupils' books, such as the *Muṣannaf* of Ibn Abī Shayba and the *Muṣnad* of Ibn Ḥanbal, from which they can be recovered, at least partially, with patience. The century of vigorous *hadīth* scholarship from Ibn Abī Ḥātim to al-Ḥakim al-Naysābūrī remains another vast uncharted ocean of knowledge, and particular attention must be devoted to the extraordinary Sunnī scholars of Iran during this time. Finally, *none* of the six canonical Sunnī *hadīth* books has received a thorough examination in a Western language, a task that I hope this study has made a little less intimidating.

The portrait of Sunnī Islam that I have sketched on the basis of several major books in the genre of hadīth literature suggests that its articulation and survival was the work of men identified as huffāz. The word hāfiz means far more than "one who has memorized the Qur'ān," as is found in colloquial parlance, but, rather, evokes the concepts of "protection," "safeguarding," and "preservation." This term has permeated this study, ranging from Ibn Sa'd's citation of Sufyān al-Thawrī's "four huffāz," to Ibn Ḥanbal's application of the term to at least nine men in the 'Ilal, to the second half of the title of al-Dhahabī's Tadhkirat al-huffāz and the bulk of its contents. Although Ibn Sa'd appears personally not to have used the term hāfiz, the entire principle behind al-Ṭabaqāt al-kabīr is the identification of the channels of transmitters who preserved the teachings and practices of

³ Various derivatives from the root h-f-z occur in a couple dozen verses in the Qur'an. The word hāfiz occurs twice (12:64 and 86:4) and refers to God as the "best protector" (khayrun hāfizan) in the first case and an ambiguous guardian in the second. The plural form of hāfiz is associated with those who perform prayers regularly (6:92, 23:9, 70:34; as a verb, see 2:238), those who are chaste ("guard their orifices; see 23:5, 33:35, 70: 29; as a verb see 24:30, 33:35), those who keep their oaths (5:79), and the Prophet Joseph's brothers (12:12, 63, 65). The Qur'an also declares that God is "protector (hafiz) over everything" (11:57, 34:21) and that "Lo! We, even we, reveal the Reminder, and lo! We verily are its Guardian" (15: 9). Finally, the angels who record all human activity in writing are referred to as hāfizūn (82:10).

These four men were 'Abd al-Malik b. Abī Sulaymān and Ismā'īl b. Abī Khālid of Kufa; 'Āṣim al-Aḥwal of Basra; and Yaḥyā b. Sa'īd al-Anṣārī of Medina.

⁵ These nine men were 'Abd al-Malik b. Abī Sulaymān, Mālik, Marwān b. Mu'āwiya al-Fazārī, al-Mughīra b. Miqsam al-Dabbī, Shu'ba, Sufyān al-Thawrī, Wakī', Zā'ida b. Qudāma, and Zuhayr b. Mu'āwiya.

the Prophet down to his day of critical hadīth compilation. Ibn Abī Hātim defines explicitly the sahāba as the men and women who "preserved (hafizū) from the Prophet that which he informed them concerning God, what he legislated, ruled, judged, entrusted, ordered, forbade, warned against and inculcated"6 and that the tābi'ūn "preserved from the sahāba that which they had disseminated concerning regulations, practices, and all that we have described the sahāba as having (known)." While the sobriquet hāfiz became restricted to fewer and fewer hadith scholars over the centuries, at least in the eyes of someone like al-Dhahabī, it was an unambiguous stamp of religious authority that was adopted by Sunnī scholars to distinguish the truly exceptional and indispensable men of learning from the thousands of trustworthy transmitters, all of whom played far more modest roles in the seven-century epic of hadīth compilation and criticism. If we venture to describe Shī'ī Islam as essentially a "firga of the Imāms," it would seem most appropriate to declare Sunnī Islam, at least as understood by the hadith scholars, as the "firga of the huffāz."

APPENDIX A

The following table consists of the *hadīth* scholars who are mentioned as authorities in only one of the ten sources analyzed in chapter IV.3.

Table A: Other Critics

Period 1 (100-200/718-815)

Name	Death Date	Location	Source
'Amr b. Dīnār	126/744	Mecca	Ibn al-Madīnī
'Uthman b. 'Āṣim, Abū Hasīn	127/745	Kufa	Ibn 'Adī
Abū Isḥāq al-Sabī'ī,	127/745	Kufa	Ibn al-Madīnī
'Amr b. 'Abdullāh			
al-Hamdānī	101 (510	_	
Mālik b. Dīnār	131/749	Basra	Ibn 'Adī
Ayyūb b. Abī Tamīma al-Sakhtiyānī	131/749	Basra	Ibn 'Adī
Yaḥyā b. Abī Kathīr	132/749	Yamāma	Ibn al-Madīnī
Rabī'a b. Abī 'Abd	136/753	Medina	Ibn 'Adī
al-Raḥmān al-Ra'y			
Yaḥyā b. Saʻīd b. Qays al-Anṣārī	143/760	Medina	Ibn Ḥibbān
Hishām b. 'Urwa	146/763	Medina	Ibn Hibbān
Ibn Isḥāq, Muḥammad	150/767	Medina, Baghdad	Ibn al-Madīnī
Ma'mar b. Rāshid	153/770	Basra, Yemen	Ibn al-Madīnī
Saʻīd b. Abī ʻArūba Mihrān	156/773	Basra	Ibn al-Madīnī
Ibrāhīm b. Ṭahmān al-Zāhid	168/784	Nishapur	al-Ḥākim
Abū 'Awāna al-Waḍḍāḥ b. Khālid	176/792	Basra	Ibn al-Madīnī
Yaḥyā b. Zakariyyā b. Abī Zāʾida	182/799	Kufa	Ibn al-Madīnī
Abū Isḥāq al-Fazārī, Ibrāhīm b. Muḥammad	185/801	Syria	Ibn Abī Ḥātim
Jarīr b. 'Abd al-Ḥamīd	188/804	Rayy	Ibn 'Adī

[&]quot; fa-ḥafizū 'anhu 🎏 mā ballaghahum 'an Allāhi 'azza wa jallā, wa mā sanna wa shara'a wa hakama wa qaḍā wa nadaba wa amara wa nahā wa hazara wa addaba; Taqdima, 7.

i fa-ḥafizū 'an ṣaḥābati rasūli llāhi 🎏 mā nasharūhu wa baththūhu min al-aḥkāmi wa l-sunani wa l-āthāri wa sā'iri mā wasafnā l-sahāba bihi; Tagdima, 8.

(cont.)

Name	Death Date	Location	Source
al-Shaybānī, Muḥammad	189/805	Baghdad	al-Ḥākim
b. al-Ḥasan			
al-Fadl b. Mūsā al-Sinānī	192/808	Marw	Ibn 'Adī
Sufyān al-Ra's b. Ziyād	200/815	Basra	Ibn 'Adī
al-Baṣrī			
Yaḥyā b. Ādam, mawlā	203/818	Kufa	Ibn al-Madīnī
Banī Umavya			
Yazīd b. Hārūn b.	206/821	Wāsit	al-Khatīb
Zādhān		·	•
al-Muzaffar b. Mudrik,	207/822	Khurasan,	Ibn 'Adī
Abū Kāmil		Baghdad	
'Affan b. Muslim	220/835	Basra	al-Khatīb
Sa'īd b. Mansūr, Abū	227/842	Khurasan	Ibn 'Adī
'Uthman			

Period 2 (200-300/815-912): Other Critics

Name	Death Date	Location	Source
Ibn Sa'd, Muḥammad	230/845	Baghdad	al-Mizzī
Ibrāhīm b. Muḥammad	231/846	Basra,	Ibn 'Adī
b. 'Ar'ara		Baghdad	
Khalaf b. Sālim	231/846	Baghdad	Ibn 'Adī
al-Makhzūmī	004/040	D	T1 (A 1-
al-Shadhakūnī, Sulaymān b. Dāwūd	234/848	Basra	Ibn 'Adī
al-Qawārīrī, 'Ubayd Allāh	235/849	Basra,	Ibn Ḥibbān
b. 'Umar	2337 043	Baghdad	Ion inoban
Duḥaym, 'Abd al-Raḥmān	245/859	Syria	Ibn 'Adī
b. Ibrāhīm		,	
al-Dārimī, 'Abdullāh	255/869	Samarqand	Ibn Ḥibbān
b. 'Abd al-Raḥmān			
al-Dhuhlī, Muhammad	258/872	Nishapur	Ibn Ḥibbān
b. Yaḥyā	007.4000	**	T) (A.)-
Muḥammad b. Yaḥyā	267/880	Harran	Ibn 'Adī
al-Ḥarrānī Ibn Wāra, Muḥammad	270/883	Rayy	Ibn 'Adī
b. Muslim	2707003	Rayy	Ion Au
Abū Isḥāq Ibrāhīm	271/884	Isfahan	Ibn 'Adī
b. Awrama			
Muḥammad b. 'Awf	272/885	Syria	Ibn 'Adī
al-Ḥimṣī		-	

(cont.)

Name	Death Date	Location	Source
Abū Dāwūd Sulaymān	275/888	Baghdad,	
b. al-Ash'ath		Basra	Ibn Hibbān
Ibn Abī Khaythama,	279/892	Baghdad	al-Mizzī
Abū Bakr Aḥmad			
al-Tirmidhī, Abū ʿĪsā	279/892	Khurasan	al-Dhahabī
Muḥammad b. 'Isa			
'Abdullāh b. Aḥmad	290/903	Baghdad	Ibn 'Adī
b. Hanbal			
'Alī b. Ḥusayn b. Junayd	291/904	Rayy	Ibn al-Jawzī
al-Rāzī			· ·
Şālih b. Muḥammad	293/906	Baghdad	Ibn 'Adī
Mūsā b. Hārūn al-Bazzār	294/907	Baghdad	Ibn 'Adī
'Ubayd al-'Ijlī al-Ḥusayn	294/907	Baghdad	Ibn 'Adī
b. Muḥammad			
'Alī b. Sa'īd b. Bashīr	297/910	Rayy,	Ibn 'Adī
'Ulayk al-Rāzī		Egypt	
'Abdullāh b. Muḥammad	300/912	Khurasan	Ibn 'Adī
al-Farhādhānī			
'Abdān al-Ahwāzī,	306/918	Ahwaz	Ibn 'Adī
'Abdullāh b. Aḥmad			
Zakariyyā b. Yaḥyā al-Sājī	307/919	Basra	Ibn al-Jawzī
al-Dūlābī, Abū Bishr	310/922	Rayy	al-Dhahabī
Muḥammad b. Aḥmad			
Ibn Khuzayma,	311/923	Nishapur	al-Dhahabī
Muḥammad b. Isḥāq			

Period 3 (300-400/912-1009)

Name	Death Date	Location	Source
Abū Saʻīd ʻAbd al-Raḥman b. Aḥmad al-Ṣadafī	347/958	Egypt	al-Mizzī

APPENDIX B

The following table is my interpretation of Ibn Sa'd's favorite hadīth transmitters on the basis of the grades they receive in al-Tabaqāt alkabīr. See above, VII.2.

Table B: Ibn Sa'd's most reliable transmitters

1 40	ne B. Ibii sa a s most renas				
	Name	City	Ļ	Grades	Reference (ȚK 2001)
	Group A ¹				
1	Ayyūb al-Sakhtiyānī	Basra	4	thiqa-ḥujja-thabt, jāmi ^c	IX, 246-50
2	al-Ḥasan al-Baṣrī	Basra	2	thiqa-ḥujja-ma'mūn, jāmi', rafī', 'ālī	IX, 157-78
3	Saʻīd b. al-Musayyab	Medina	1	thiqa-thabt-ma'mūn, jāmiʻ, rafiʻ, ʻālī	VII, 119-43
	Group B ²				
l	'Affan b. Muslim	Basra	7	thiqa-hujja-thabt	IX, 300
2	Bakr b. 'Abdullāh al-Muzanī	Basra	2	thiqa-hujja-thabt, ma'mūn	IX, 208
3	Habbān b. Hilāļ al-Bāhilī	Basra	7	thiqa-hujja-thabt	IX, 300
4	Ḥammād b. Zayd	Basra	6	thiqa-hujja-thabt	IX, 287
5	Hishām al-Dastawā'ī	Basra	5	thiqa-ḥujja-thabt	IX, 279
6	Hishām b. 'Urwa	Medina	4	thiqa-ḥujja-thabt	VII, 462
7	Mālik b. Anas	Medina	6	thiqa-hujja-thabt, ma'mün	VII, 570–5
8	Shuʻba b. al-Ḥajjāj	Basra	5	thiqa-ḥujja-thabt, ma'mūn	IX, 280
9	Sufyān al-Thawrī	Kufa	6	thiqa-ḥujja-thabt, ma'mün	VIII, 492
10	Yaḥyā b. Saʻīd al-Anṣārī	Medina	5	thiqa-hujja-thabt	VII, 517–8

Table B (cont.)

	Name	City	Ţ	Grades	Reference (ȚK 2001)
	Group C ³				
1	'Abd al-Malik b. Abī Sulaymān al-Fazārī	Kufa	4	thiqa-thabt-ma'mūn	VIII, 469
2	'Abdullāh b. Idrīs	Kufa	7	thiqa-hujja-ma'mūn	VIII, 511
3	Abū Nuʻaym al-Faḍl b. Dukayn	Kufa	7	thiqa-ḥujja-ma'mūn	VIII, 523
4	al-Awzā'ī	Syria		thiqa-hujja-ma'mūn	IX, 494
5	Ḥafs b. Ghiyāth	Kufa	7	thiqa-thabt-ma'mūn	VIII, 512
6	Ibn al-Mubārak	Khurāsān		thiqa-ḥujja-ma ^{>} mūn	IX, 529
7	Maʻn b. ʻĪsā	Medina	7	thiqa-thabt-ma'mun	VII, 615
8	Qatāda b. Di'āma	Basra	3	thiqa-ḥujja-ma'mūn	IX, 228
9	'Urwa b. al-Zubayr	Medina	2	thiqa-thabt-ma'mūn, ʻāliyy	VIÍ, 177
0	Wakīʿ b. al-Jarrāḥ	Kufa	7	thiqa-hujja-ma'mūn, rafīʻ	VIII, 517
11	Yaḥyā b. Saʻīd al-Qaṭṭān	Basra	6	thiqa-ḥujja-ma'mūn, rafīʻ	IX, 294
12	Zuhayr b. Muʻāwiya	Kufa	6	thiqa-thabt-ma'mūn	VIII, 497
	Group D ⁴				
1	'Abdullāh b. 'Utba b. Mas'ūd	Medina	l	thiqa, rafiʻ	VII, 62
2	Abū Bakr b. 'Abd al-Raḥmān b. al-Ḥārith	Medina	2	thiqa, ʻālī	VII, 205
3	'Alī b. al-Ḥusayn b. 'Alī	Medina	2	thiqa-ma'mūn, rafīʻ, ʻālī	VII, 209-
4	al-Ḥakam b. 'Utayba	Kufa	3	thiqa, ʻālī	VIII, 450
5	Manşūr b. al-Mu ^c tamir	Kufa	4	thiqa-ma'mūn, rafiʻ, ʻālī	VIII, 456
6	Muḥammad b. Sīrīn	Basra	2	thiqa-ma'mūn, rafiʻ, ʻālī	IX, 192-2
7	al-Qāsim b. Muḥammad	Medina	2	thiqa, rafī', 'ālī	VII, 186
8	Sulaymān b. Yasār	Medina	1	thiqa, rafī', 'ālī	VII, 172
9	al-Zuhrī	Medina	4	thiqa, jāmi'	VII, 429

¹ Men whose grades were at least thiqa-ḥujja and jāmi^c or thiqa-thabt and jāmi^c. ² Men whose grades were at least thiqa-ḥujja-thabt.

Men whose grades were at least thiqa-hujja or thiqa-thabt.
 Men whose grades were at least thiqa, rafi' or thiqa, 'āl, or thiqa, jāmi'.

APPENDIX C

Note: See above, Table 7.1, for a guide to the abbreviations.

Table C: Ibn Ma'ın's liars and other disgraceful transmitters

_	Name	City	Grade	Reference
				(al-Dūrī, <i>Tārīkh</i>)
l	'Abd al-Ḥakīm b. Manṣūr	Wāsiṭ	kadhdhāb, LHBS	II, 293, 315
2	'Abd al-Mālik b. Hārūn	(Kufa)	kadhdhāb	I, 234, 257
3	Abū Idām Sulaymān!	Kufa	kadhdhāb	I, 346, II, 18
4	Abū l-Bakhtarī, Wahb b.	Baghdad	kadhdhāb-khabīth,	I, 129-30,
	Wahb		yaḍa'u l-ḥadīth	137, 401
5	Abū Bakr al-Hudhalī	Basra	kadhdhāb,2 LBS,	II, 69, 186
			LBT	
6	Abū Dāwūd Sulaymān b.	Baghdad	rajul sū',	I, 401, II, 306
	'Amr al-Nakha'ī		kadhdhāb- khabīth,	
			yada'u l-hadīth,	
_			akdhab al-nās³	
	Abū Jābir al-Bayyādī⁴	Medina	kadhdhāb	I, 141
8	Abū l-Jārūd Ziyād b.	Kufa	kadhdhāb-khabīth,	I, 269, 333, 405
	Mundhir ⁵		LBT	
9		Hīt	kadhdhā b	I, 339
10	Abū Sa'd al-Ṣaghghānī		shayṭān min	II, 278
			al-shayāṭīn, LBS	
11	Abū Sufyān b. al-Ṣawwāf	Basra	yakdhib	II, 116
12	Abū l-Ṭayyib	Baghdad	kadhdhāb	II, 300
13	'Amr b. Jumay'	Baghdad ⁷	kadhdhāb-khabīth, LBT	I, 337; II, 308

Table C (cont.)

	Name	City	Grade	Reference (al-Dūrī, <i>Tārīkh</i>)
14	'Amr b. Khālid	Kufa	kadhdhāb, LBT	I, 232, 327; II, 270
15	'Aṭā' b. 'Ajlān	Kufa	kadhdhāb, LBT, LHBS	I, 296, 403
16	Ayyūb b. Mudrik	Damascus	kadhdhāb, LBT, LBS	II, 69, 258
17	Busr b. Abī Arṭāt ⁸	(Syria)	rajul sū'	I, 112; II, 345
18	Dāwūd b. 'Abd al-Jabbār	(Baghdad)	yakdhib, LBT	I, 57; II, 295
19	Faḍl b. 'Īsā al-Raqāshī	. 0 ,	rajul sū'	II, 206
20	Ghiyāth b. Ibrāhīm	Basra	kadhdhāb, LBT	I, 340
21	Hasan al-Lu'lu'ī		kadhdhā b	I, 267
22	al-Haytham b. 'Adī	Kufa	yakdhib, LBT	I, 267
23	al-Ḥusayn b. Dumayra9	Medina	kadhdhāb, LBS	I, 174
24	al-Ḥusayn b. 'Ulwān		kadhdhāb II, 294	-,
25	Ibn Zabāla, Muḥammad b. al-Hasan	Medina	kadhdhāb, LBT,	I, 133, 167
26	Ibrāhīm b. Abī Yahyā		yasruq al-ḥadīth	T 100 100
27	Isḥāq b. Idrīs	Basra	kadhdhāb, LBT	I, 120, 123
		Dasia	kadhdhāb, LBS, yaḍa'u l-ḥadīth	II, 196, 260
28	Jābir b. Yazīd al-Ju'fī	Kufa	kadhdhāb, LBS,	I, 210, 216, 268
			lā yuktabu hadīthuhu	
29	Khuşayb b. Jahdar		kadhdhãb ¹⁰	II, 76
30	Mahdī b. Hilāl	Basra	kadhdhā b	II, 76 II, 99
31	Mu'allā b. Hilāl	Kufa	kadhdhāb, LBS	I, 270, II, 200
32	al-Mughīra b. Sa'īd'	Kufa	rajul sū'	I, 270, II, 200 I, 374
33	Muhammad b. al-Hasan b.	Kufa	yakdhibu, LBT	I, 256, 273
-	Abī Yazīd	xxuia	yaaaaaa, LD1	1, 230, 273
34	Muḥammad b. Mujīb	Kufa	kadhdhāb, 'aduww Allāh	II, 238, 306
35	Muḥammad b. 'Uthaym	(Kufa)	kadhdhāb, LBS	II, 152, 217

9 Ibn Abī Ḥātim reports that his full name is al-Ḥusayn b. Abdullāh b. Dumayra b. Abī Dumayra; al-Jarḥ wa l-ta'dīl, III, 57-8.

The father's name is either Zayd or Yazīd according to al-Dhahabī; $M\bar{\imath}z\bar{a}n$ al- $itid\bar{a}l$, II, 208.

² This is actually the opinion of Ghundar, at whose mosque Abū Bakr al-Hudhalī was a regular worshipper.

³ Ibn Ma'în remarked that "nobody in Baghdad could be worse than Abū Dāwūd" wa lam yakun bi-Baghdād rajulun illā wa huwa khayrun min Abī Dāwūd; al-Dūrī, Tārīkh, I, 401.

⁺ His name is Muhammad b. 'Abd al-Rahmān.

⁵ This is the founder of the Jārūdiyya sect of the Zaydiyya that we mentioned briefly in the previous chapter. Al-Dhahabī mentions that al-Tirmidhī included one of his hadīth in his Jāmi'; Mīzān al-i'tidāl, II, 93–4.

 $^{^6}$ Al-Dhahabī provides his name as al-Qāsim b. Bahrām; Mīzān al-i'tidāl, III, 369 and IV, 583.

⁷ 'Amr was a companion of al-A'mash and served later as qāḍī for Ḥūlwān

⁸ This is the same Busr whose destructive raid on behalf of Mu'āwiya during the first *fitna* was described above. Ibn Ma'īn reports that the Medinans did not consider him to have heard anything from the Prophet, whereas the Syrians claimed that he did; al-Dūrī, *Tānkh*, I, 112.

¹⁰ This is the expression used by Yaḥyā al-Qaṭṭān, according to Ibn Ma'īn.

Founder of the extremist Shī'ī sect known as the Mughīriyya, who led a revolt in Kufa in 119/737. Madelung reports that al-Mughīra was a follower of Muḥammad al-Bāqir, until the latter's death, and then preached that the Mahdī was Muḥammad b. 'Abdullāh al-Naſs al-Zakiyyā. Note, however, that al-Mughīra was executed twenty-five years prior to the latter's revolt; see Madelung, "al-Mughīriyya," EI², VII, 347-8.

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APPENDIX C

Table C (cont.)

	Name	City	Grade	Reference (al-Dūrī, <i>Tārīkh</i>)
36	Muḥammad b. Ziyād al-Maymūnī		kadhdhāb-khabīth	II, 302
37	Mūsā b. Mutayr		kadhdhāb	I, 245
38	Nūḥ b. Darrāj	Kufa, Baghdad ¹²	kadhdhāb, LBS, LBT	1338, I, 267, II, 25
39	al-Qāsim b. 'Abd al-Rahmān		laysa yusāwī shay'a	I, 273
40	Qatan b. Su'ayr b. al-Khims		rajul su', kāna yuttahamu bi-amr qabīh	II, 19
41	Sila b. Sulaymān	Wāsit	kadhdhāb, LBT	II, 112, 297
42	Şabīḥ b. Sa ^c īd	Khuld (?)	kadhdhā b-khabī th	II, 161, 302
43	Talīd b. Sulaymān	Baghdad	kadhdhāb, LBS	I, 209, 394
44	'Ubayd b. al-Qāsim	O	kadhdhāb, LBT	I, 294, II, 305
45	Umayr b. Isḥāq	(Basra)	lā yusāwī shay'an	II, 195
46	Usayd al-Jammāl	Baghdad	kadhdhāb	I, 288
47	Yūnus b. Khabbāb	Kufa	rajul sū'	I, 299, 342
48	Yūsuf b. Khālid al-Samtī	Basra	kadhdhāb, lā yuktabu 'anhu shay'un	I, 150; II, 107

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¹² Nūḥ served as a qāḍī in both of these cities; Mīzān al-itidāl, IV, 276.

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Abbreviations: 'AA: 'Abdullāh; 'AR: 'Abd al-Rahmān; M: Muhammad

Note on death dates: Space and time have conspired against the undertaking of an exhaustive study of the death dates of those scholars for whom multiple opinions are found in the sources. In general, I have followed the opinions of al-Dhahabī or Ibn Hajar, and have made every effort to be consistent throughout this book.

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CHAPTER NINE

CONCLUSION

This study began with the hypothesis that the major hadīth scholars of the third/ninth century played a far greater role in the articulation of Sunnī Islam than did al-Shāfi'ī and Abū l-Ḥasan al-Ash'arī, two men traditionally associated with the crystallization of Sunnism. One of the primary reasons for my focus upon the hadith scholars of this period is the historical fact that the Sahīhs of al-Bukhārī and Muslim have remained the most exalted books, after the Qur'an, in the opinions of virtually all Sunnī scholars of the past twelve centuries, a feat unmatched by any legal or theological work found in the four primary schools of law or the three schools of theology associated with Sunnism.1 How did these two books achieve this status? In order to answer this question, it was necessary to examine initially three related topics: 1) the long-term evolution of Sunni hadīth scholarship; 2) the rise of both hadith and hadith-transmitter criticism during the three generations prior to al-Bukhārī and Muslim; and 3) the state of hadīth scholarship on the eve of these two compilers, which I have dubbed the generation of Ibn Sa'd, Ibn Ma'īn, and Ibn Ḥanbal.

A narrative of the evolution of hadīth scholarship over its seven most vibrant centuries was the task of the second and third chapters, the aim of which was to provide a historical context for the most influential hadīth scholars and books in the Sunnī tradition. I relied heavily upon al-Dhahabī's Tadhkirat al-ḥuffāz for the seven-phase narrative of this tradition, and paid particular attention to the men whom he identified with the sobriquet Shaykh al-Islām. Few scholars, if any, in Islamic civilization have devoted such an enormous amount of time and paper to the elucidation of the development of Sunnī hadīth compilation and criticism as al-Dhahabī, and I endeavored to make my presentation as faithful as possible to his critical eye. Two particularly important findings in these chapters were the dating of

¹ The three Sunnī schools of theology are the Ash'arī, Mātūrīdī, and that of the hadīth folk, which, for lack of a better expression, is the one that opposes staunchly rational speculation on theological topics.

the first hadīth compilations to a full century prior to the two Sahīhs and, secondly, the surprisingly high volume of compilation and criticism that occurred during the century after their production. This latter observation indicates that there was much material that fourth/tenth century scholars felt needed to be preserved that had not been included in the books of al-Bukhārī and his contemporaries, and that the two Sahīhs represented a high watermark in the evolution of hadīth scholarship, but were not the culmination of this ubiquitous Sunnī tradition. It was also clear that a closer investigation of the sources composed during the generation of scholars who lived prior to al-Bukhārī and Muslim, as opposed to the Mamlūk days of al-Dhahabī, would be necessary to uncover exactly how this high watermark was reached, as well as to ascertain the fundamental assumptions upon which these books were built.

We inched closer to our goal of identifying the process by which Sunnism was articulated with an investigation of the origins of hadīth criticism in the fourth chapter. I reasoned that if my hypothesis that hadīth scholars played the major role in the shaping of Sunnī Islam was correct, then the critical disciplines constructed by the most prominent of these scholars must have exerted a major influence upon the nature of the core sources that were compiled according to their guidelines. The primary challenge was to isolate the earliest and most important designers of this craft, and to distinguish between the mere hadīth critics, such as Sufyān al-Thawrī, and the more specialized ḥadīth-transmitter critics, like Shu'ba, Mālik, and Yaḥyā l-Qaṭṭān. A particularly significant finding was that hadīth-transmitter criticism was not applied on a vast scale until the generation immediately preceding al-Bukhārī and Muslim, which just so happened to be the generation of Ibn Sa'd, Ibn Ma'īn, and Ibn Hanbal, the first group of critics whose opinions have been well preserved.

A thorough investigation of the nature of *hadīth* scholarship and its relationship to *literateurs*, theologians, ascetics, and jurists of the generation of Ibn Sa'd, Ibn Ma'īn, and Ibn Hanbal, was necessary due to the importance of these men upon the development of *hadīth* compilation and criticism. Al-Dhahabī's *Siyar a'lām al-nubalā*' provided a spectacular bird's eye view of the intellectual and religious life of the central lands of Islam during the first half of the third/ninth century, and depicted the preeminence of Iraqi scholars, along with the shift of the *hadīth* centers east to Khurāsān and even central Asia, from where all six of the canonical compilers emerged. The

florescence of book production was evident during this time, and my decision to label this period as the "generation of Ibn Sa'd, Ibn Ma'īn, and Ibn Ḥanbal" was due to both the influence of these scholars in general upon hadīth compilation and criticism, as well as the accessibility of their opinions, which I subjected to rigorous analysis in Part II of this book.

One of the key assumptions that I have made in this study has been that the primary books that I investigated in Part II, namely Ibn Sa'd's al-Tabaqāt al-kabīr, al-Dūrī's Tārīkh, the 'Ilal of 'Abdullāh b. Ahmad, and Ibn Hanbal's Musnad, are the appropriate works for the analysis of the emergence of Sunnī Islam. While I have shown in the fourth chapter that the critical opinions of Ibn Ma'īn and Ibn Hanbal were among the most highly esteemed of their era, Ibn Sa'd's opinions do not seem to have been particularly important until, perhaps, the time of al-Khatīb al-Baghdādī.2 Even though I justified the inclusion of al-Tabaqāt al-kabīr on the basis of the large number of both qualitative and quantitative opinions it contains, one nagging uncertainty remained: did any of these three scholars consider himself to be Sunnī? In fact, there does not appear to be much evidence that the term "Sunnī" was much in use during the time to which I am dating its origins, and we saw that the term sāḥib sunna occurred very infrequently in al-Tabaqāt al-kabīr, and never in al-Dūrī's Tānīkh. How could I claim to be describing the nature of the emergence of Sunnī Islam when the precise self-identities of its first adherents are so opaque?

My solution to this problem has been to approach Sunnism not as a creed articulated by an individual, but, rather, as a textual tradition based upon three fundamental principles, each of which I analyzed in Part II of this book. The first of these principles is the collective probity of the saḥāba, all of whom were authorities for the purpose of hadīth transmission, regardless of their relationship to the acrimonious conflicts that emerged immediately following the death of the Prophet Muḥammad. The second principle is a methodology, the precise nature of which remains somewhat mysterious, for hadīth-transmitter criticism, and a consensus as to the identities of the most authoritative transmitters of religious material during the first two centuries

² A perusal of *Tārīkh Baghad* suggests that al-Khaṭīb drew copiously upon Ibn Sa'd's opinions found in *al-Ṭabaqāt al-kabīr*.

of Islam. I demonstrated the existence of this consensus in chapter seven, where I found a rate of 87% agreement regarding the reliability of the transmitters whom Ibn Sa'd and Ibn Ma'īn graded, and 86% for those whom Ibn Sa'd and Ibn Hanbal graded. The final, and perhaps most subtle, principle guiding the hadīth scholars who compiled the most important Sunnī books is a historical vision as to the five-generation development of their craft. I articulated this narrative on the basis of a close analysis of the major sahābī and tābi'ī transmitters in the Musnad of Ibn Hanbal, the most prolific transmitters identified in Ibn Sa'd's al-Tabagāt al-kabīr, and the individuals who cultivated circles of disciples (ashāb) according to Ibn Ma'īn and Ibn Hanbal. This vision, which has hitherto been ignored or even obfuscated by most modern scholars, is perhaps the most eloquent expression of the network of authoritative scholars whose transmissions inspired the compilers of the third/ninth century to travel thousands of miles in order to acquire and include in their hadīth books.

The biggest risk that I took in this project was the conscious decision to postpone a detailed analysis of any major hadīth book of the third/ninth century until after an investigation of the critical prosopographical literature of the same period. The reason for this procedure lay largely in the esoteric nature of the isnād, namely the hidden story behind the men who transmitted each hadith. How much material did each name in the isnād transmit? Was a transmitter a prominent pupil of the source from which he obtained the report? Was he a semi-reliable, excellent, or mediocre transmitter? While these questions are occasionally answered in the commentaries of major hadīth books, the reader, more often than not, must perform the "background check" of the transmitters himself. This book then, should be seen as a necessary preliminary step in order acquire some of the prosopographical knowledge that the compilers of the great hadith books had in their memories and felt little obligation to include in their works. In other words, I have identified the men whom I believe were considered the most reliable hadīth scholars in the Sunnī tradition from the time of its origins until the third/ninth century and whose presence in an isnād enhanced greatly the value of the hadīth to which it was attached.

Several exciting avenues of research in the Sunnī hadīth literature have become apparent during the course of this project. An analysis of the roles of the sahāba in hadīth transmission is an urgent task in

order to reveal their didactic efforts that ultimately played a significant part in the articulation of Islamic law. Another topic of importance is the need to uncover the teachings of the generation of Wakī', Yaḥyā l-Qaṭṭān, and 'Affān b. Muslim, whose non-extant writings formed the nuclei of their pupils' books, such as the *Musannaf* of Ibn Abī Shayba and the *Musnad* of Ibn Ḥanbal, from which they can be recovered, at least partially, with patience. The century of vigorous hadīth scholarship from Ibn Abī Ḥātim to al-Ḥakim al-Naysābūrī remains another vast uncharted ocean of knowledge, and particular attention must be devoted to the extraordinary Sunnī scholars of Iran during this time. Finally, none of the six canonical Sunnī hadīth books has received a thorough examination in a Western language, a task that I hope this study has made a little less intimidating.

The portrait of Sunnī Islam that I have sketched on the basis of several major books in the genre of hadīth literature suggests that its articulation and survival was the work of men identified as huffāz. The word hāfiz means far more than "one who has memorized the Qur'ān," as is found in colloquial parlance, but, rather, evokes the concepts of "protection," "safeguarding," and "preservation." This term has permeated this study, ranging from Ibn Sa'd's citation of Sufyān al-Thawrī's "four huffāz," to Ibn Ḥanbal's application of the term to at least nine men in the 'Ilal, to the second half of the title of al-Dhahabī's Tadhkirat al-huffāz and the bulk of its contents. Although Ibn Sa'd appears personally not to have used the term hāfiz, the entire principle behind al-Tabaqāt al-kabīr is the identification of the channels of transmitters who preserved the teachings and practices of

³ Various derivatives from the root h-f-z occur in a couple dozen verses in the Qur'ān. The word hāfiz occurs twice (12:64 and 86:4) and refers to God as the "best protector" (khayrun hāfizan) in the first case and an ambiguous guardian in the second. The plural form of hāfiz is associated with those who perform prayers regularly (6:92, 23:9, 70:34; as a verb, see 2:238), those who are chaste ("guard their orifices;" see 23:5, 33:35, 70: 29; as a verb see 24:30, 33:35), those who keep their oaths (5:79), and the Prophet Joseph's brothers (12:12, 63, 65). The Qur'ān also declares that God is "protector (hafiz) over everything" (11:57, 34:21) and that "Lo! We, even we, reveal the Reminder, and lo! We verily are its Guardian" (15: 9). Finally, the angels who record all human activity in writing are referred to as hāfizūn (82:10).

These four men were 'Abd al-Malik b. Abī Sulaymān and Ismā'īl b. Abī Khālid of Kufa; 'Āṣim al-Aḥwal of Basra; and Yaḥyā b. Sa'īd al-Anṣārī of Medina.

⁵ These nine men were 'Abd al-Malik b. Abī Sulaymān, Mālik, Marwān b. Mu'āwiya al-Fazārī, al-Mughīra b. Miqsam al-Dabbī, Shu'ba, Sufyān al-Thawrī, Wakī', Zā'ida b. Qudāma, and Zuhayr b. Mu'āwiya.

the Prophet down to his day of critical hadīth compilation. Ibn Abī Hātim defines explicitly the sahāba as the men and women who "preserved (hafizū) from the Prophet that which he informed them concerning God, what he legislated, ruled, judged, entrusted, ordered, forbade, warned against and inculcated" and that the tābi'ūn "preserved from the saḥāba that which they had disseminated concerning regulations, practices, and all that we have described the sahāba as having (known)." While the sobriquet hāfiz became restricted to fewer and fewer hadith scholars over the centuries, at least in the eyes of someone like al-Dhahabī, it was an unambiguous stamp of religious authority that was adopted by Sunnī scholars to distinguish the truly exceptional and indispensable men of learning from the thousands of trustworthy transmitters, all of whom played far more modest roles in the seven-century epic of hadīth compilation and criticism. If we venture to describe Shī'ī Islam as essentially a "firga of the Imāms," it would seem most appropriate to declare Sunnī Islam, at least as understood by the hadith scholars, as the "firga of the huffāz."

APPENDIX A

The following table consists of the *hadīth* scholars who are mentioned as authorities in only one of the ten sources analyzed in chapter IV.3.

Table A: Other Critics

Period 1 (100-200/718-815)

Name	Death Date	Location	Source
'Amr b. Dīnār	126/744	Mecca	Ibn al-Madīnī
'Uthman b. 'Āṣim, Abū Hasīn	127/745	Kufa	Ibn 'Adī
Abū Isḥāq al-Sabī'ī, 'Amr b. 'Abdullāh al-Hamdānī	127/745	Kufa	Ibn al-Madīnī
Mālik b. Dīnār	131/749	Basra	Ibn 'Adī
Ayyūb b. Abī Tamīma al-Sakhtiyānī	131/749	Basra	Ibn 'Adī
Yaḥyā b. Abī Kathīr	132/749	Yamāma	Ibn al-Madīnī
Rabī'a b. Abī 'Abd al-Raḥmān al-Ra'y	136/753	Medina	Ibn 'Adī
Yaḥyā b. Sa'īd b. Qays al-Anṣārī	143/760	Medina	Ibn Ḥibbān
Hishām b. 'Urwa	146/763	Medina	Ibn Ḥibbān
Ibn Isḥāq, Muḥammad	150/767	Medina, Baghdad	Ibn al-Madīnī
Ma'mar b. Rāshid	153/770	Basra, Yemen	Ibn al-Madīnī
Saʻīd b. Abī ʻArūba Mihrān	156/773	Basra	Ibn al-Madīnī
Ibrāhīm b. Țahmān al-Zāhid	168/784	Nishapur	al-Ḥākim
Abū 'Awāna al-Waḍḍāḥ b. Khālid	176/792	Basra	Ibn al-Madīnī
Yaḥyā b. Zakariyyā b. Abī Zāʾida	182/799	Kufa	Ibn al-Madīnī
Abū Isḥāq al-Fazārī, Ibrāhīm b. Muḥammad	185/801	Syria	Ibn Abī Ḥātim
Jarīr b. 'Abd al-Ḥamīd	188/804	Rayy	Ibn 'Adī

b fa-ḥafizū ʻanhu 🇯 mā ballaghahum ʻan Allāhi ʻazza wa jallā, wa mā sanna wa sharaʻa wa hakama wa qaḍā wa nadaba wa amara wa nahā wa hazara wa addaba; Taqdima, 7.

^{&#}x27; fa-ḥafizū 'an ṣahābati rasūli llāhi 🎏 mā nasharūhu wa baththūhu min al-aḥkāmi wa l-sunani wa l-āthāri wa sā'iri mā waṣafnā l-sahāba bihi; Taqdima, 8.

(cont.

Name	Death Date	Location	Source
al-Shaybānī, Muḥammad	189/805	Baghdad	al-Ḥākim
b. al-Hasan			
al-Fadl b. Mūsā al-Sinānī	192/808	Marw	Ibn 'Adī
Sufyān al-Ra's b. Ziyād	200/815	Basra	Ibn 'Adī
al-Basrī			
Yahyā b. Ādam, mawlā	203/818	Kufa	Ibn al-Madīnī
Banī Umayya			
Yazīd b. Hārūn b.	206/821	Wāsiţ	al-Khaṭīb
Zādhān		•	·
al-Muzaffar b. Mudrik,	207/822	Khurasan,	Ibn 'Adī
Abū Kāmil		Baghdad	
'Affān b. Muslim	220/835	Basra	al-Khaṭīb
Sa'īd b. Manṣūr, Abū	227/842	Khurasan	Ibn 'Adī
'Uthman			

Period 2 (200-300/815-912): Other Critics

Name	Death Date	Location	Source
Ibn Sa'd, Muhammad	230/845	Baghdad	al-Mizzī
Ibrāhīm b. Muḥammad	231/846	Basra,	Ibn 'Adī
b. 'Ar'ara		Baghdad	
Khalaf b. Sālim 🕴	231/846	Baghdad	Ibn 'Adī
al-Makhzūmī			
al-Shadhakūnī, Sulaymān	234/848	Basra	Ibn 'Adī
b. Dāwūd			
al-Qawārīrī, 'Ubayd Allāh	235/849	Basra,	Ibn Ḥibbān
b. 'Umar		Baghdad	
Duḥaym, 'Abd al-Raḥmān	245/859	Syria	Ibn 'Adī
b. Ibrāhīm			
al-Dārimī, 'Abdullāh	255/869	Samarqand	Ibn Ḥibbān
b. 'Abd al-Raḥmān			
al-Dhuhlī, Muḥammad	258/872	Nishapur	Ibn Ḥibbān
b. Yalıyā			
Muḥammad b. Yaḥyā	267/880	Harran	Ibn 'Adī
al-Ḥarrānī			
Ibn Wāra, Muḥammad	270/883	Rayy	Ibn 'Adī
b. Muslim			
Abū Isḥāq Ibrāhīm	271/884	Isfahan	Ibn 'Adī
b. Awrama			
Muḥammad b. 'Awf	272/885	Syria	Ibn 'Adī
al-Himsī			

(cont.)

Name	Death Date	Location	Source
Abū Dāwūd Sulaymān	275/888	Baghdad,	
b. al-Ashʻath		Basra	Ibn Hibbān
Ibn Abī Khaythama,	279/892	Baghdad	al-Mizzī
Abū Bakr Aḥmad		Ü	
al-Tirmidhī, Abū 'Īsā	279/892	Khurasan	al-Dhahabī
Muḥammad b. ʿĪsa			
'Abdullāh b. Aḥmad	290/903	Baghdad	Ibn 'Adī
b. Ḥanbal		J	
'Alī b. Ḥusayn b. Junayd	291/904	Rayy	Ibn al-Jawzī
al-Rāzī			Ü
Ṣāliḥ b. Muḥammad	293/906	Baghdad	Ibn 'Adī
Mūsā b. Hārūn al-Bazzār	294/907	Baghdad	Ibn 'Adī
ʻUbayd al-ʻIjlī al-Ḥusayn	294/907	Baghdad	Ibn 'Adī
b. Muḥammad		_	
'Alī b. Sa'īd b. Bashīr	297/910	Rayy,	Ibn 'Adī
'Ulayk al-Rāzī		Egypt	
'Abdullāh b. Muḥammad	300/912	Khurasan	Ibn 'Adī
al-Farhādhānī			
'Abdān al-Ahwāzī,	306/918	Ahwaz	Ibn 'Adī
'Abdullāh b. Aḥmad			
Zakariyyā b. Yaḥyā al-Sājī	307/919	Basra	Ibn al-Jawzī
al-Dūlābī, Abū Bishr	310/922	Rayy	al-Dhahabī
Muḥammad b. Aḥmad			
Ibn Khuzayma,	311/923	Nishapur	al-Dhahabī
Muḥammad b. Isḥāq		·	

Period 3 (300-400/912-1009)

Name	Death Date	Location	Source
Abū Saʻīd ʻAbd al-Raḥman b. Aḥmad al-Ṣadafī	347/958	Egypt	al-Mizzī

APPENDIX B

The following table is my interpretation of Ibn Sa'd's favorite hadīth transmitters on the basis of the grades they receive in al-Tabaqāt alkabīr. See above, VII.2.

Table B: Ibn Sa'd's most reliable transmitters

	Name	City	Ţ	Grades	Reference (ȚK 2001)
	Group A ¹				
l	Ayyūb al-Sakhtiyānī	Basra	4	thiqa-ḥujja-thabt, jāmi ^c	IX, 246-50
2	al-Ḥasan al-Baṣrī	Basra	2	thiqa-ḥujja-ma'mūn, jāmiʻ, raftʻ, ʻālī	IX, 157-78
3	Saʻīd b. al-Musayyab	Medina	1	thiqa-thabt-ma'mūn, jāmiʻ, rafiʻ, ʻālī	VII, 119–43
	Group B ²				
1	'Affan b. Muslim	Basra	7	thiqa-hujja-thabt	IX, 300
2	Bakr b. 'Abdullāh al-Muzanī	Basra	2	thiqa-ḥujja-thabt, ma'mūn	IX, 208
3	Habbān b. Hilāl al-Bāhilī	Basra	7	thiqa-ḥujja-thabt	IX, 300
4	Hammād b. Zayd	Basra	6	thiqa-hujja-thabt	IX, 287
5	Hishām al-Dastawā'ī	Basra	5	thiqa-ḥujja-thabt	IX, 279
6	Hishām b. 'Urwa	Medina	4	thiqa-hujja-thabt	VII, 462
7	Mālik b. Anas	Medina	6	thiqa-hujja-thabt, ma'mūn	VII, 570-5
8	Shu'ba b. al-Ḥajjāj	Basra	5	thiqa-hujja-thabt, ma'mūn	IX, 280
9	Sufyān al-Thawrī	Kufa	6	thiqa-ḥujja-thabt, ma'mūn	VIII, 492
10	Yaḥyā b. Saʻīd al-Anṣārī	Medina	5	thiqa-ḥujja-thabt	VII, 517–8

Table B (cont.)

	Name	City	Ţ	Grades	Reference (ȚK 2001)
	Group C ³				
ł	'Abd al-Malik b. Abī Sulaymān al-Fazārī	Kufa	4	thiqa-thabt-ma'mūn	VIII, 469
2	'Abdullāh b. Idrīs	Kufa	7	thiqa-hujja-ma'mūn	VIII, 511
3	Abū Nuʻaym al-Faḍl b. Dukayn	Kufa	7	thiqa-hujja-ma'mūn	VIII, 523
4	al-Awzā'ī	Syria		thiqa-hujja-ma'mūn	IX, 494
5	Hafs b. Ghiyāth	Kufa	7	thiqa-thabt-ma'mun	VIII, 512
6	Ibn al-Mubārak	Khurāsān		thiqa-hujja-ma'mūn	IX, 529
7	Ma'n b. 'Īsā	Medina	7	thiqa-thabt-ma'mun	VII, 615
8	Qatāda b. Di'āma	Basra	3	thiqa-hujja-ma'mūn	IX, 228
9	'Ùrwa b. al-Zubayr	Medina	2	thiqa-thabt-ma'mūn, ʻāliyy	VII, 177
0	Wakī' b. al-Jarrāḥ	Kufa	7	thiqa-ḥujja-ma'mūn, rafīʻ	VIII, 517
11	Yaḥyā b. Saʻīd al-Qaṭṭān	Basra	6	thiqa-ḥujja-ma'mūn, rafiʻ	IX, 294
12	Zuhayr b. Mu'āwiya	Kufa	6	thiqa-thabt-ma'mūn	VIII, 497
	Group D ⁴				
l	'Abdullāh b. 'Utba b. Mas'ūd	Medina	1	thiqa, rafiʻ	VII, 62
2	Abū Bakr b. 'Abd al-Raḥmān b. al-Ḥārith	Medina	2	thiqa, ʻālī	VII, 205
3	'Alī b. al-Ḥusayn b. 'Alī	Medina	2	thiqa-ma'mūn, rafīʻ, ʻālī	VII, 209-
4	al-Hakam b. 'Utayba	Kufa	3	thiqa, ʻālī	VIII, 450
5	Manşūr b. al-Mu'tamir	Kufa	4	thiqa-ma'mūn, rafīʻ, ʻālī	VIII, 456
6	Muḥammad b. Sīrīn	Basra	2	thiqa-ma'mūn, rafiʻ, ʻālī	IX, 192-2
7	al-Qāsim b. Muḥammad	Medina	2	thiqa, rafî', 'ālī	VII, 186
8	Sulaymān b. Yasār	Medina	1	thiqa, rafi', 'ālī	VII, 172
9	al-Zuhrī	Medina	4	thiga, jāmi'	VII, 429

¹ Men whose grades were at least thiqa-hujja and jāmi or thiqa-thabt and jāmi.
² Men whose grades were at least thiqa-hujja-thabt.

Men whose grades were at least thiqa-hujja or thiqa-thabt.
 Men whose grades were at least thiqa, rafi' or thiqa, 'āl, or thiqa, jāmi'.

APPENDIX C

Note: See above, Table 7.1, for a guide to the abbreviations.

Table C: Ibn Ma'īn's liars and other disgraceful transmitters

	Name	City	Grade	Reference (al-Dūrī, <i>Tārīkh</i>)
1	'Abd al-Ḥakīm b. Manṣūr	Wāsiţ	kadhdhāb, LHBS	II, 293, 315
2	'Abd al-Mālik b. Hārūn	(Kufa)	kadhdhāb	I, 234, 257
3	Abū Idām Sulaymān ⁱ	Kufa	kadhdhā b	I, 346, II, 18
4	Abū l-Bakhtarī, Wahb b.	Baghdad	kadhdhāb-khabīth,	I, 129–30,
	Wahb		yaḍa'u l-ḥadīth	137, 401
5	Abū Bakr al-Hudhalī	Basra	kadhdhāb,² LBS, LBT	II, 69, 186
6	Abū Dāwūd Sulavmān b.	Baghdad	rajul sū',	I, 401, II, 306
	'Amr al-Nakha'ī	Ü	kadhdhāb- khabīth, yaḍaʿu l-ḥadīth, akdhab al-nās³	
7	Abū Jābir al-Bayyāḍī⁺	Medina	kadhdhāb	I, 141
8	Abū l-Jārūd Ziyād b. Mundhir ⁵	Kufa	kadhdhāb-khabīth, LBT	I, 269, 333, 405
9	Abū Hamdān ⁶	Hīt	kadhdhā b	I, 339
10	Abū Sa'd al-Ṣaghghānī		shaytān min al-shayāṭīn, LBS	II, 278
11	Abū Sufyān b. al-Ṣawwāf	Basra	yakdhib	II, 116
12	Abū l-Ţayyib	Baghdad	kadhdhāb	II, 300
13	'Amr b. Jumay'	Baghdad ⁷	kadhdhāb-khabīth, LBT	I, 337; II, 308

Table C (cont.)

	Name	City	Grade	Reference (al-Dūrī, <i>Tārīkh</i>)
14	'Amr b. Khālid	Kufa	kadhdhāb, LBT	I, 232, 327; II, 270
15	'Aṭā' b. 'Ajlān	Kufa	kadhdhāb, LBT, LHBS	I, 296, 403
16	Ayyûb b. Mudrik	Dam as cus	kadhdhāb, LBT, LBS	II, 69, 258
17	Busr b. Abī Artāt ⁸	(Syria)	rajul sū'	I, 112; II, 345
18	Dāwūd b. 'Abd al-Jabbār	(Baghdad)	yakdhib, LBT	I, 57; II, 295
19	Faḍl b. ʿĪsā al-Raqāshī	, ,	rajul sū'	II, 206
20	Ghiyāth b. Ibrāhīm	Basra	kadhdhāb, LBT	I, 340
21	Ḥasan al-Lu'lu'ī		kadhdhā b	I, 267
22	al-Haytham b. 'Adī	Kufa	yakdhib, LBT	I, 267
23	al-Ḥusayn b. Ḍumayra ⁹	Medina	kadhdhāb, LBS	I, 174
24	al-Ḥusayn b. 'Ulwān		kadhdhāb II, 294	•
25	Ibn Zabāla, Muḥammad b. al-Hasan	Medina	kadhdhāb, LBT, yasruq al-hadīth	I, 133, 167
26	Ibrāhīm b. Abī Yahyā			T 100 100
27	Ishāq b. Idrīs	Basra	kadhdhāb, LBT kadhdhāb, LBS,	I, 120, 123
-/	isinad is. Italis	Dasia	yada ^c u l-ḥadīth	II, 196, 260
28	Jābir b. Yazīd al-Ju'fī	Kufa	kadhdhāb, LBS,	I, 210, 216, 268
			lā yuktabu	
			hadīthuhu	
29	Khuṣayb b. Jaḥdar		$kadhdh\bar{a}b^{10}$	II, 76
30	Mahdī b. Hilāl	Basra	kadhdhā b	II, 99
31	Muʻallā b. Hilāl	Kufa	kadhdhāb, LBS	I, 270, II, 200
32	al-Mughīra b. Sa'īd¹¹	Kufa	rajul sū'	I, 374
33	Muḥammad b. al-Ḥasan b. Abī Yazīd	Kufa	yakdhibu, LBT	I, 256, 273
34	Muḥammad b. Mujīb	Kufa	kadhdhāb, 'aduww Allāh	II, 238, 306
35	Muḥammad b. 'Uthaym	(Kufa)	kadhdhāb, LBS	II, 152, 217

¹ The father's name is either Zayd or Yazīd according to al-Dhahabī; Mīzān al-ĕtidāl, II, 208. 🚣

² This is actually the opinion of Ghundar, at whose mosque Abū Bakr al-Hudhalī was a regular worshipper.

³ Ibn Ma'īn remarked that "nobody in Baghdad could be worse than Abū Dāwūd" tea lam yakun bi-Baghdād rajulun illā wa huwa khayrun min Abī Dāwūd; al-Dūrī, Tārīkh, I, 401.

⁺ His name is Muḥammad b. 'Abd al-Raḥmān.

⁵ This is the founder of the Jārūdiyya sect of the Zaydiyya that we mentioned briefly in the previous chapter. Al-Dhahabī mentions that al-Tirmidhī included one of his hadīth in his Jāmi'; Mīzān al-i'tidāl, II, 93-4.

⁶ Al-Dhahabī provides his name as al-Qāsim b. Bahrām; Mīzān al-i'tidāl, III, 369 and IV, 583.

⁷ 'Amr was a companion of al-A'mash and served later as qādī for Ḥūlwān

⁸ This is the same Busr whose destructive raid on behalf of Mu'āwiya during the first *fitna* was described above. Ibn Ma'īn reports that the Medinans did not consider him to have heard anything from the Prophet, whereas the Syrians claimed that he did; al-Dūrī, *Tārīkh*, I. 112.

⁹ Ibn Abī Ḥātim reports that his full name is al-Ḥusayn b. 'Abdullāh b. Dumayra b. Abī Dumayra; al-Ṭarh wa l-ta'dīl, III, 57-8.

¹⁰ This is the expression used by Yaḥyā al-Qaṭṭān, according to Ibn Ma'īn.

¹¹ Founder of the extremist Shī'ī sect known as the Mughīriyya, who led a revolt in Kufa in 119/737. Madelung reports that al-Mughīra was a follower of Muḥammad al-Bāqir, until the latter's death, and then preached that the Mahdī was Muḥammad b. 'Abdullāh al-Naſs al-Zakiyyā. Note, however, that al-Mughīra was executed twenty-five years prior to the latter's revolt; see Madelung, "al-Mughīriyya," EI², VII, 347-8.

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APPENDIX C

Table C (cont.)

	Name	City	Grade	Reference (al-Dūrī, <i>Tārīkh</i>)
36	Muḥammad b. Ziyād al-Maymūnī		kadhdhāb-khabīth	II, 302
37	Mūsā b. Mutayr		kadhdhā b	I, 245
38	Núḥ b. Darrāj	Kufa, Baghdad ¹²	kadhdhāb, LBS, LBT	1338, I, 267, II, 25
39	al-Qāsim b. 'Abd al-Rahmān		laysa yusāwī shay³a	I, 273
40	Qatan b. Su'ayr b. al-Khims		rajul su', kāna yuttahamu bi-amr qabīh	II, 19
4 l	Sila b. Sulaymān	Wāsit	kadhdhāb, LBT	II, 112, 297
42	Sabīh b. Sa'īd	Khuld (?)	kadhdhāb-khabīth	II, 161, 302
43	Talīd b. Sulaymān	Baghdad	kadhdhāb, LBS	I, 209, 394
44	'Ubayd b. al-Qāsim	Ü	kadhdhāb, LBT	I, 294, II, 305
45	Umayr b. Isḥāq	(Basra)	lā yusāwī shay'an	II, 195
46	Usayd al-Jammāl	Baghdad	kadhdhā b	I, 288
47	Yūnus b. Khabbāb	Kufa	rajul sū'	I, 299, 342
48	Yūsuf b. Khālid al-Samtī	Basra	kadhdhāb, lā yuktabu 'anhu shay'un	I, 150; II, 107

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Abbreviations: 'AA: 'Abdullāh; 'AR: 'Abd al-Rahmān; M: Muhammad

Note on death dates: Space and time have conspired against the undertaking of an exhaustive study of the death dates of those scholars for whom multiple opinions are found in the sources. In general, I have followed the opinions of al-Dhahabī or Ibn Ḥajar, and have made every effort to be consistent throughout this book.

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